The Outlook

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1905

The Indian School Question: The Position of the Administration

The Outlook learns from an authoritative source in Washington that the position of the Administration is substantially as follows: The alleged agreement by which certain election districts were to be carried by the Republican party in return for Administration support of denominational schools was not denied because it was not considered worthy of denial. If any such interview between Dr. Scharf and Senator Bard took place as has been alleged, Dr. Scharf had no authority to speak for the Roman Catholic Church or its dignitaries, and did not speak for them, and no agreement was made by or on behalf of the Republican Committee, and the interview had no relation to the action of the Indian Department in its appropriation to Indian schools. If the figures quoted by Mr. Brosius, the attorney of the Indian Rights Association, show that over $50,000 has been given to sectarian schools where the *pro rata* of the petitioners would be less than $2,000, this has been due, not to carrying out the principles of the Administration, but to a disregard of them. The contracts already made expire in four months, and the error will not be repeated under Mr. Leupp's administration. Passing to the main question, the Administration holds that the supposed analogy between the Indian trust funds and the funds held by the Government for white citizens is misleading. The Government, whether Federal, State, or city, has no moneys which it pays out *pro rata* on quarter day to the citizens or uses for the benefit of each individual citizen. For the Indian Reservations, however, it has funds which it disposes of at the request of each individual Indian or as in its judgment it deems wise for each individual Indian. When a number of individual Indians petition that their share of these funds should be used for a certain school, it seems to the Administration unwise to refuse their request; but it is also the opinion of the Administration that it would be better to give the money to the Indians themselves that they may use it as they see fit, and in accordance with this judgment it desires Congress to pass the Lacey Bill, which authorizes the President at his discretion to designate such Indian tribe or tribes as he may deem to be prepared to receive and manage their individual shares of the tribal funds on deposit in the Treasury of the United States to their credit, and to cause the money held in trust for such tribes to be allotted in severalty to the members thereof. Or he may order the distribution and payment of the interest on such funds to any individual members of such tribes when in his judgment it would be to the best interest of such individuals to have such distribution made. Of course after such allotment the Indian would have absolute liberty to use the money so allotted to him to pay the tuition of his children in a school of his own choice. The Outlook reports this statement of the position of the Administration for the purpose of giving its readers as fully and fairly as possible both sides of this question. It does not again raise the question of the pernicious activity of Dr. Scharf, the disingenuous and befogging correspondence of Mr. Sherman, the artificial and insignificant character of the petitions upon which the sectarian aid was granted, for these things, although thoroughly bad in our opinion, are incidental to the main question—incidents for which not the President, but other officials acting without his approval or authority, are responsible. But on the main question The Outlook must still take issue with the President; it retains its judgment that any allotment of moneys out of trust funds by the United States Government, as a trustee for the Indians,

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for denominational schools, is inconsistent with the fundamental principle that there should be no financial connection of any sort between the Government and ecclesiastical organizations. We hope that the Lacey Bill or its substance will be adopted by Congress, though it is to be noted in passing that even after its adoption it will still be possible for the Indian Bureau to make appropriations for sectarian schools out of the trust funds for those tribes whose funds have not been allotted. We trust, therefore, that Congress will also adopt the amendment to the Indian Appropriation Bill reported last Monday by the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, providing that no allotment out of trust funds held by the United States Government shall be made to any school under ecclesiastical control. We understand that Mr. Leupp, the new Commissioner of Indian Affairs, is heartily in favor of this legislation.

❀

The Santo Domingo Situation

In sending to the Senate the procotol concluded between the Governments of Santo Domingo and the United States, President Roosevelt accompanied it with a message which not only states the events which have made such an agreement necessary, but also shows the relations of the problem involved to the Monroe Doctrine, and to the duty of the United States toward its weaker and less developed neighbors. Both procotol and message have been made public at the President's request. The procotol sets forth the facts that the Dominican Republic is under a burden of debt, that it is impossible to pay the creditors at once, that peril of foreign intervention is imminent, and that the United States would view such intervention as unfriendly to itself if it tended to oppress or control the destiny of Santo Domingo. The United States therefore agrees to attempt to adjust both the foreign and domestic debts, and for that purpose is to hold custom-houses, name employees, and collect the revenue, subject to inspection by the Santo Domingo Government. Of the revenues, forty-five per cent. is to be paid to the Santo Domingo Government for the public service, and the rest used to pay debts, foreign or domestic, as ascertained and liquidated, including interest. Provision is made, of course, for expenses, and for paying any possible surplus to Santo Domingo annually. The system of duties and taxes may be changed only in agreement with the President of the United States; but export duties upon Dominican products may be reduced or abolished immediately by the Dominican Government, but not increased; neither may the public debt be increased without the consent of the President of the United States. The agreement is to take effect only when approved by the United States Senate and the Dominican Congress. In the preamble the United States agrees "to respect the complete territorial integrity of the Dominican Republic."

❀

The President's Message

The cordial acquiescence and earnest request of the Dominicans, as the President points out, make it easy and simple for us to carry out, in this case, part of the international duty involved in the Monroe Doctrine; and we are not likely to be suspected of bad faith or intention of aggrandizement. But the principles involved are of wider application. These principles, as The Outlook understands them, were stated, under the title "The New Monroe Doctrine," in The Outlook two weeks ago. The President's argument follows much the same lines. We must accept responsibilities if we assert powers of restraint. If we allow other nations to seize customs to collect debt, we owe it to American residents in a place like Santo Domingo to see that their claims and interests are not injured by undue preference to other foreign creditors. Even temporary possession of territory (such as that of Germany in Venezuela, made with our consent) makes the United States a party in interest, because such possession may lead further. If the United States merely offers its good offices to settle the complicated problems of debt and contract such as exist to-day in Santo Domingo, other Governments may take more energetic action to enforce even merely contractual claims, and the

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result might be that the interests of American trade and commerce might be abandoned in favor of the subjects of these other Governments, and our citizens find "their valuable property practically confiscated and American enterprise paralyzed." The history of the Santo Domingo Improvement Company, its concessions from the Dominican Government, the repudiation of these contracts by later Governments in the island, the adjustment of the claims by arbitration, and the absolute failure of Santo Domingo to pay the damages awarded, followed by the occupation of custom-houses by the agents of the United States, as provided for in the award—all this is an apt illustration of the impossibility that the United States should leave such complications to work out their own solution. Briefly, the President says, "the state of things in Santo Domingo has become hopeless unless the United States or some other strong Government shall interpose to bring order out of chaos." This has now been done, happily by mutual consent, and only the approval of the Senate is now required to put this one problem in the way of solution. As to Cuba, the Platt Amendment (which the President calls "that most wise measure of international statesmanship") will prevent just such difficulties arising. There is a suggestion that a similar plan might be of great advantage to Santo Domingo and inferentially to other small republics near us. Exactly what might happen in the absence of such a plan, and in the absence also of such an agreement as is now proposed, is pointed out by President Roosevelt in the following words:

> If the United States Government declines to take action and other foreign Governments resort to action to secure payment of their claims, the latter would be entitled, according to the decision of the Hague Tribunal in the Venezuelan cases, to the preferential payment of their claims; and this would absorb all the Dominican revenues and would be a virtual sacrifice of American claims and interests in the island. If, moreover, any such action should be taken by them, the only method to enable them to secure the payment of their claims would be to take possession of the custom-houses, and, considering the state of the Dominican finances, this would mean a definite and very possibly permanent occupation of Dominican territory, for no period could be set to the time which would be necessarily required for the payment of their obligations and unliquidated claims.

From beginning to end this special message is a demonstration that the actual facts in this particular case illustrate the broad theorem that in all the relations of this country with the small republics to our south we have a responsibility and a duty which cannot be evaded. That self-interest is concerned is admitted; but it is equally true that such a course of action in maintaining and extending the Monroe Doctrine as the President advocates will also result to the benefit of other countries. Indeed, as the President says, it is supremely to our own interest that all these communities "should be or become prosperous and stable, and therefore not merely in name but in fact independent and self-governing."

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Railroad Rate Regulation Again

The following letter explains itself:

In the February 11 Outlook's editorial on "Governmental Regulation of Railways," the theory that the public is a partner in every actual railroad is supported by the following:

> Thus, the State of Massachusetts, to which Mr. Tuttle justly refers those who wish to see how Legislatures may wisely interfere with railroad management, limited by statute the amount of dividends which the Boston and Albany Railroad might pay its stockholders.

A fiction that the Boston and Albany dividends are limited to eight per cent. has been traveling up and down, closely followed by categorical denials, for more than twenty years, to my personal knowledge. Massachusetts has never regulated, by statute or otherwise, the dividends which the Boston and Albany shall pay to its stockholders. The earlier charters of Massachusetts railroads contained a general provision by which the State might regulate their rates when ten per cent. dividends were earned, and that was all. The Law Department of the Boston and Albany Railroad knows of no statute limiting its dividends, and is unable to explain the popular belief in its existence. As the editorial supports some of its more important opinions upon this fallacy, its readers would seem to be entitled to a correction having as much editorial prominence as was given to the erroneous statement.

We are glad to give our correspondent's correction the prominent place which he asks for it, both as a matter of

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courtesy and because it affords us the opportunity of reinforcing our position by the actual facts. The Boston and Albany Railroad was chartered by the Acts of 1867. It was composed of two roads, the Boston and Worcester Railroad, chartered in 1831, and the Western Railroad, chartered in 1833. The charters of both these component roads provided for the regulation of rates. Thus, the Boston and Worcester charter (Acts of 1831, Chap. 72, Sec. 5) declares "that if at the expiration of ten years from and after the completion of the said road, the net income or receipts from tolls or other profits, taking the ten years aforesaid as a basis of calculation, shall have amounted to more than ten per cent. per annum upon the cost of the road, the Legislature may take measures to alter and reduce the rate of toll and other profits in such manner as to take off the overplus for the next ten years, calculating the amount of transportation upon the road to be the same as the ten preceding years." In 1900 the Boston and Albany Railroad Company was leased to the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company, and the Commonwealth of Massachusetts "did not waive or release any rights or privileges which it may now have, but on the contrary hereby expressly reserves and retains such rights, including the right to reduce rates and fares." (Acts of 1900, Ch. 468, Sec. 2.) The Outlook was in error in stating that Massachusetts *had* by statute limited the amount of dividends which the Boston and Albany Railroad might pay its stockholders. But, as our readers will see from the above quotations, the State, both by charter and statute, has asserted its right to regulate tolls and rates, and it was with this right of the State before it that the Boston and Albany Railroad Corporation never paid over ten per cent. dividend on its stock, but expended at least some of its surplus in beautifying its stations and in improving its permanent way, making it for many years one of the model suburban railways of the country. It is true that the public in this instance did not get the benefit of reduced rates from the assertion of its right to regulate rates, but it did get the benefit of improved facilities. The Outlook is not now contending, nor has it contended in the past, for the reduction of rates or for the hasty passage of a specific rate-regulating bill. Its contention is that the people, through the State and Federal Governments, have a right, both by philosophy and by precedent, to regulate and perhaps even to control the financial as well as the physical administration of the railways of the country.

❀

A Question of Prerogative

An instructive clash between the Senate and the lower House took place last week. The House of Representatives had received from the Senate the Agricultural Appropriation Bill with amendments. One of these amendments had nothing whatever to do with the general subject of the bill, or at least the application was remote in character. This amendment in substance declared that the tariff drawback provisions of the Dingley Law should not be construed to affect the schedule as to wheat. The Outlook has already explained the effect of an opposite construction of this provision. The House at once resented the action of the Senate in attaching this amendment to the bill as a direct encroachment on the Constitutional function of the House to originate all measures relating to taxation. The matter was amicably closed by the Senate rescinding its action, although the author of the amendment and Senator Hansbrough, Senator Foraker, and others, protested that the rule that bills to raise revenue must originate in the House did not prohibit the Senate from originating measures *affecting* revenue. In this connection it is interesting to note that the Treasury Department has called upon the Attorney-General for advice in the way of a more accurate definition of the powers of the Secretary of the Treasury in regard to allowing drawbacks. The question is one of enormous commercial importance and will undoubtedly receive further attention.——Another Congressional matter of interest last week was a debate on naval appropriations in the House, in which the arguments on one side were practically those advanced by Mr. Reuterdahl in an article to be found

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elsewhere in this number of The Outlook, while the opponents of an increase in the navy urged that such a course would be an objectionable extension of the spirit of militarism, and that it was monstrous for this country to enter into the rivalry of other nations as to which should own the largest navy, especially in view of the fact that, as alleged, war-ships nowadays so soon become antiquated—this was, by the way, on the other hand, the precise argument advanced by the other side as showing the necessity of more and better battle-ships.——The House passed the Mann Bill providing for a government for the Panama Canal Zone by placing the power for that purpose for the present in the hands of the President. This bill abolishes the Canal Commission as now constituted. The Senate has before it a separate canal bill, in many respects like the Mann Bill, but without the provision for the abolishing of the Canal Commission.——The House has passed the Pension Bill; it carries $138,250,100.——The House of Representatives and the Senate on Friday of last week united in ceremonies attending the acceptance by Congress of a statue of Frances E. Willard, presented by the State of Illinois. Senator Cullom and others made appropriate addresses noting Miss Willard's beautiful character and influence. This is the first statue of a woman to be placed in the National Capitol.

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A Significant Insurance Contest

Public interest throughout the country was last week especially directed to a question of life insurance finance by the announcement that a serious disagreement had arisen in the Board of Directors of the Equitable Life Assurance Society of this city. The Equitable has had an exceedingly interesting history as a financial institution. It was founded by the late Henry B. Hyde, whose father was an employee of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York. Mr. Hyde was a genius in finance, and a readable account of his life, privately published and circulated a few years ago by the company which he founded, narrates under what difficulty and with what patience and extraordinary struggle and self-sacrifice he laid the foundations for the colossal financial institution which now bears the name of the Equitable Life Assurance Society. The capital stock of this corporation is only one hundred thousand dollars, although it does an annual business of nearly eighty millions—receiving a greater gross income than the New York Central Railway. On the death of the founder, Mr. Hyde, a few years ago, Mr. James Alexander, long connected with the company, was elected its President. Mr. Alexander comes of a family intimately associated with the history and prosperity of Princeton University and distinguished in New York for the administrative, professional, and financial ability which many of its representatives have displayed. While Mr. Alexander was made President, the stock control of the company was left by the founder, Mr. Hyde, to his son, James H. Hyde, now Vice-President of the corporation, a young man not quite thirty years of age. Under the terms of his father's will, Mr. Hyde in a few months will come into control of a majority of the capital stock of the company, and can therefore, in accordance with the ordinary laws and procedures of corporations, elect his own Board of Directors—that is to say, men who will support the financial and business policies which he outlines for his company. Mr. Alexander and some of the other officers of the Equitable believe, as we believe, that this is too great and too tempting a power to put into the hands of any one man. The Equitable has several hundred thousand policy-holders, its assets amount to $413,953,020.74, and it received last year an income from all sources of $79,076,695.95. Mr. Alexander in a public statement wisely takes the ground that the policy-holders who have by their payments of premium enabled the Equitable to collect this vast aggregation of capital ought to have an influential voice in the election of directors to control these sums of money. He therefore urged the real "mutualization" of the Equitable, the removal of the present Vice-President, Mr. James H.

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Hyde, from his position of one-man power, and the adopting of a general business policy which should make the Equitable more truly an insurance company and less openly a great financial and banking corporation. At the annual meeting, held last week, Mr. Alexander was apparently defeated and Mr. Hyde victorious in this struggle for the control of the company and a modification of the lines upon which it is conducted. But it is announced that the majority of the Board of Directors (who are manifestly controlled by young Mr. Hyde, partly, no doubt, through the force of logic and abstract reasoning, and partly, no doubt, through the power of the millions in the way of deposits and loans and underwritings which Mr. Hyde is able to turn in the direction of these gentlemen's banks, trust companies, railroads, and the like), agreed to formulate some scheme by which the policy-holders shall hereafter have a voice in the management of the company's affairs.

❀

A Dangerous Money Power

Policy-holders in the Equitable, in our opinion, need have no anxiety about the immediate safety of their insurance investment so far as stocks, bonds, real estate, and other material tokens of financial solidity are concerned. The Equitable, like some of its great contemporaries, makes an exceedingly strong showing. The serious question involved is whether it is not really too strong a financial showing. The life insurance business in this country has up to the present time been conducted with honor and integrity. There have been a few cases of disastrous failure owing to natural causes, and a few other cases of disastrous losses resulting from swindling and embezzlement. But, on the whole, the interests of policy-holders have been safely and soundly guarded, and the administrators of our great life insurance companies have considered that they were not doing business as private individuals, but were acting as trustees for widows and orphans. In most States of the Union the people have realized the serious nature of this trust and the great suffering which would result from its mismanagement, by hedging it about with a body of carefully studied law and by creating State Commissioners whose business it is to see that the insurance companies are soundly and honestly directed. The importance of exercising this care in the administration and regulation of life insurance companies will be very clearly indicated if we glance at the figures for a moment. Three of the greatest companies in the United States are the New York Life, Equitable Life, and the Mutual Life—all of New York City. According to the last published statements of these three companies, they together possess assets of over one thousand millions of dollars. They received as income from premiums, interest, rent, and other profits in the year 1904 over two hundred and fifty millions, and they spent for death claims and other policy values, and for commissions, salaries, and all expenses, over one hundred and sixty millions. With these enormous sums of money passing through their hands, the executive officers of these companies can control banks, trust companies, railroads, and many other forms of financial industry. The question raised by the actual condition of affairs in the management of the Equitable Assurance Company and a conceivably possible similar condition in its contemporaries is this: Shall three men, each one representing a great insurance company, have the use and control of one thousand millions of dollars in the money market of New York? The reasonable and conservative answer is manifest, and The Outlook is glad to know that some of the strongest, ablest, and most disinterested financiers of Wall Street say No! to this question. A rather interesting parallel may be traced between the agitation for the right of the policy-holder to have a voice in the affairs of his company and the right of the public to have a voice in the affairs of railroad companies which they have helped create. Both these agitations are in the direction of the democratization of industry. It is perfectly true that a mob cannot run a life insurance company, nor a railroad, nor a newspaper, nor any other business. But, according to the school of political philosophy to which the founders of this

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Government belonged, and to which Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln adhered, the people on the whole may be better trusted to pick out the experts who shall represent them in the technical administration of business than a small body of these very experts themselves, who sooner or later, by inheritance, by the exercise of the money power, and by log-rolling, become a self-perpetuating oligarchy in Wall Street as well as in Washington.

❀

Kansas and the Oil Trust

The long-continued friction between the oil producers of Kansas and the Standard Oil Company reached an acute stage last week, when the Company practically stopped the purchase of oil in the Kansas field and the State Legislature appropriated $200,000 for the erection of a refinery to be owned and operated by the State. The immediate cause of the trouble was the reduced price paid by the Standard Oil Company to the producers of crude petroleum. But a deep-seated antagonism to the trust already existed and had recently been accentuated by the serial publication of Miss Tarbell's "History." The complaints of the oil producers therefore fell on receptive ears. The petroleum industry of the State has developed rapidly in the last three years. The output of about 300,000 barrels in 1902 rose to a million barrels the next year, and to about 6,000,000 barrels in 1904. With the increase in the output of the country as a whole the price naturally declined, and further reductions were made until the Standard Oil Company could extend its facilities for using crude oil. While profits for the producers are still good, they were incensed by their helplessness and by the lack of competitive buying in the face of the decline. The feeling became so strong that in his inaugural message to the Legislature Governor Hoch advocated the erection of a State refinery to afford relief from the monopoly. A bill was accordingly introduced appropriating money for the construction of a refinery to handle about 2,000 barrels of crude oil a day, and providing an additional working capital of $200,000. There was strong opposition to the measure because of its Socialistic tinge, but this was largely swept away when the officers of the Prairie Oil and Gas Company, the Kansas branch of the Standard Oil Company, unexpectedly announced a cessation of all construction work in Kansas, and at the same time discontinued the purchase of oil within the State. They explained their action on the ground that menacing legislation had so impaired the Company's credit that it was unable to raise sufficient money for further operations. But throughout the State their procedure was understood as a threat to the Legislature. If this was the case, the threat had quite the opposite effect to what had been intended. For not only was the refinery appropriation bill hurried through both houses, but the Legislature adopted a maximum rate bill to fix the price of oil transportation and prevent the giving of rebates; and a measure designed to prevent the practice of "clubbing" through discrimination in selling prices in different localities of the State was pressed to passage. A State refinery with a capacity of only from a tenth to a fifteenth of the State's production would of itself afford little relief. But it is hoped that the State's example may convince independent refiners of the possibility of entering the Kansas field and so may lead to the erection of competing refineries which will relieve the producers from monopolistic control. The experiment of this Western State in attempting to fight the great Standard Oil monopoly will be followed with interest throughout the entire country, because it is really a practical experiment in State Socialism, though its chances of success will probably be generally regarded as slight. The contest in Kansas lends additional interest to the report from Washington that the President has instructed the Bureau of Corporations, under Mr. Garfield, to make an exhaustive investigation, with all the authority that present Federal laws confer, of the history and methods of the Standard Oil Company. As readers of Miss Tarbell's history know, there have been Governmental investigations of the Standard Oil Company before. But they have been Congres-

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sional investigations, with the political and personal limitations that such investigations necessarily involve. The advantage both to the Standard Oil Company and to the public of the present investigation is that it will be expert, judicial, and unprejudiced.

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The Annual Plot to Destroy Niagara

The patience and ingenuity of concerns that seek power through legislation have been well exemplified during the present session of the New York Legislature. These concerns are apparently careless alike of the rights of the public and the beauty of nature. Last year the effort to make commercial spoil of Niagara Falls was frustrated only by the veto of Governor Odell. This year that effort has been repeated. Senator Cassidy introduced a bill which by itself was obscure; by reference to existing law, however, of which it was an amendment, it was seen to be a proposal to give to companies manufacturing and distributing electricity enormous powers, not only in using water (such as that of Niagara), but in condemning land, putting up poles, and laying conduits. This little harmless-looking bill could not escape detection. It has been amended. It ought to be killed beyond resurrection. Now another bill, bearing a disguise of innocent simplicity, has been introduced to tax companies using water from Niagara River. Mr. Wade, who introduced the bill into the Assembly, is not prepared to admit the heinousness of his measure; it would, nevertheless, if passed, not only give additional legal sanction to the commercial use of the Falls, but also bribe the State, as it were, into yielding up the Falls for the sake of revenue. It is because no one dares to despoil the Falls openly that men are attempting to do it insidiously. Public rights and natural beauties must be defended with the same patience and ingenuity with which they are attacked. In fairness to the Legislature, it is to be said that concurrently with these attacks on Niagara Falls a joint resolution has been introduced by Mr. Palmer, the Democratic leader of the Assembly, memorializing the President and Congress to enter into negotiations with the British Government for the preservation of the Falls.

❀

Steamboat Inspection

The House of Representatives has recently passed five bills covering the whole subject of the inspection of steamboats. One result of the burning of the General Slocum, with the frightful loss of life, was the discovery that the Government inspection service of steamboats had fallen into decrepitude and become entirely inadequate. The inspectors appeared to take it for granted that because certain regulations were prescribed they would be observed by the owners of steamboats, as it is constantly assumed that various laws and regulations intended to protect human life will be observed without urging on the part of the Government, as a matter of business policy. But experience has shown that, notwithstanding the heavy financial loss to companies of all sorts which follow great disasters, regulations are not enforced unless there is an efficient organization behind them. When the Supervising Inspector-General of steam vessels endeavored to put new life into the inspection service after the Slocum disaster, he found various obstacles in his path. President Roosevelt promptly took up the whole subject, and has pushed the matter of the betterment of the service with characteristic energy; and the five bills passed by the House are intended to bring this service up to date. An Executive Committee, selected from the Board of Supervising Inspectors, is created and authorized to amend or make rules between the annual meetings of the Board. Inspections of vessels, formerly made by request, are hereafter to be made annually, and power is given to condemn equipments which are found defective, without further authorization, and to revoke the certificate of any vessel which does not come up to the requirements of the law. These provisions clothe the inspectors with an authority which the owners of vessels will be quick to respect. The infamous practice of manufacturing or selling any kind of life-saving appliances which are de-

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fective or adulterated is to be visited by a heavy penalty, and on conviction the officers of boats, whether captains, engineers, or pilots, and all others who in any way contribute by their neglect or misconduct to the loss of lives, together with owners, inspectors, and charterers by whose connivance, indifference, misconduct, or violation of law lives are lost, are subject to a fine of $10,000, or to imprisonment for ten years, or both. These are heavy penalties, but not too heavy for the offense. The security of the public demands them; and for that very reason they are also in the interest of ship owners and officers. A sixth bill reported by the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries will undoubtedly pass without serious opposition, and all should become law before the end of the present session, and thus remove what has been a scandal in an important department of the Government service. Americans are generally credited with being shrewd business men. They certainly credit themselves with a capacity for dealing with practical affairs in a thoroughly efficient way. It is quite apparent, however, that the important question of so regulating steamboat travel as to protect the lives of men, women, and children has been most shamefully neglected and most inefficiently managed.

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Child Labor The first annual meeting of the National Child Labor Committee was held in New York City last week. This Committee was organized as a result of conviction in many parts of the country that local efforts for the improvement of child labor conditions would be substantially strengthened by co-ordination with similar efforts elsewhere. Since the date of its organization the National Committee has been actively engaged in field study of sections of the country in which the employment of children predominates, particularly in the textile centers of New England and the South, the glass-producing region of the Eastern and Middle States, and the anthracite coal district in Pennsylvania. The Committee has co-operated with local organizations in attempts to promote improved legislation in Pennsylvania, Kansas, Rhode Island, North Carolina, and in the District of Columbia. Other campaigns of local agitation are projected for the near future. All sections of the country were represented in the platform discussions of the meetings last week, while the church, the school, the Federation of Women's Clubs and similar associations, organized labor, and the employers of labor themselves, were among the forces arrayed against the premature employment of children. The vital connection between the problem of child labor and the educational problems of our day was emphasized by nearly every speaker during the session, and found its specific expression in the address of Chancellor Kirkland, of Vanderbilt University, who urged a more satisfactory educational test as a condition precedent to the employment of minors, the lodging of responsibility with those interested in the education of children, and the improvement of the schools themselves. So much has been published recently regarding the evils of child labor in the Southern cotton-mills that it was doubtless surprising to many people to learn that while the representatives of the South make no apology for the evil as it exists there, they are able to lodge a fair share of responsibility with Northern mill owners and investors; and while the percentage of young working children is greater in the South, it was shown by Dr. A. J. McKelway, Assistant Secretary of the National Committee for the Southern States, that there are actually more children under sixteen years of age employed in the State of Pennsylvania than in all the cotton-mills of all the Southern States. It was also shown that the South is rapidly awakening to the necessity of protecting her children from an evil which threatens to fasten itself permanently upon her industry. The enmity of the Church to whatever system imperils childhood was pledged by Bishop McVickar, of Rhode Island, while a letter from Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore, a member of the Committee, indorsed any adequate and just means that could be adopted "to prevent the employment of children at

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an age when they need the home and school for their proper development physically, socially, and morally." Cardinal Gibbons further suggested the importance of adopting some course "whereby the fathers of large families may be enabled to provide for the wants of their growing children without feeling the necessity of turning their little ones into the shops as breadwinners." Mrs. Kelley, Secretary of the National Consumers' League, made a valuable study of comparative conditions and legislative methods in the New England and Central States, with an appeal for the recognition of local responsibility and urging the intimate connection between child labor, particularly at night, and the physical and moral welfare of children; and Judge Lindsey, of the Juvenile Court of Denver, brought as from a laboratory his proof of the moral destruction wrought by the industrial hardships too frequently imposed upon little children.

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The Loss in Child Labor

The economic loss involved in the employment of children was emphasized by Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, of the University of Chicago, who urged that even the enlightened self-interest of employers in this day, when, "under the autocracy of steam, industry has run to highly specialized and therefore delicately complex forms of organization," recognizes that child labor is wasteful and therefore unprofitable, because the "pace of activity is set by the necessity to attain the maximum of production at the minimum of cost." He affirmed that child labor is the dearest, not the cheapest, kind of labor, because difficult to discipline and lacking the intelligence necessary under present forms of production. Still more important, from the standpoint of the employer, is the deterioration of the laborer, in that too early employment stunts intelligence and physical growth, and "children rendered weak and unintelligent to-day unavoidably force the employer to-morrow to deal with weak and unintelligent men and women. And the day after to-morrow, the race having of necessity deteriorated, the workmen will be congenitally weak and unintelligent and immoral; and employment of weak, immoral, unintelligent labor is unprofitable, wasteful." This charge against child labor was still further emphasized by Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, Chicago, in her remarkable closing address before the meeting at Cooper Union. Miss Addams urged the recognition of the fact that we are living no longer in a scholastic or a military age, but in an age pre-eminently industrial; that the training of children must be adapted to an industrial civilization. "We must find that the effect of industry on citizenship is as important as upon exports and imports. The State has a right at least to say that children shall not be crushed into the hospitals; that they shall not work so many hours as children that they cannot do adult work when grown. When we bring together these two tests—the human and the productivity—then we are going to treat child labor in a broader sense, in the sense of its economic importance."

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Assassination and Anarchy

Nothing less than anarchy is the actual condition in Russia to-day. The assassination of the Grand Duke Sergius; the fact that the Czar and other members of the Imperial family cannot appear in public even at an Imperial funeral without grave personal danger; the freedom with which the press and associations of professional men are making demands that would have led to banishment a year ago; the boldness of the students and professors of the St. Petersburg University in closing its doors and demanding universal suffrage; the necessity of entraining by force recruits going to the war; the continued strikes, which affect naval and military manufactures so that Russia has had to give orders for $125,000,000 worth of munitions in foreign countries—what is all this, if not anarchy? The horrible death of the Czar's uncle, the Grand Duke Sergius, follows the assassination of the Procurator-General of Finland, of M. Plehve, Minister of the Interior, of General Bobrikoff, Governor-General of Finland, and of two or three other officials of lower grade. All these men were

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hated personally because they were leaders in the reactionary party; they were accused of outrageous acts of oppression and unjust and lawless punishment, and were believed to draw the Czar back from a decision to grant to the people some kind of representative government. Others of the extreme reactionaries are believed to be in danger; it is whispered that after the massacre of "Red Sunday" the Grand Duke Sergius was formally "condemned" by a central terrorist committee, and that at the same time similar edicts were passed affecting the Grand Duke Alexis, the Procurator of the Holy Synod (M. Pobiedonostseff), and General Trepoff, Governor-General of St. Petersburg. The ease with which the murder of last week was accomplished increases the feeling that others may follow. The Grand Duke was going from his residence in the famous Kremlin of Moscow to a near-by palace belonging to the Governor-General of Moscow, where he was accustomed to take Russian baths. This fact was probably known to the assassin, who stepped out from a gateway as the Grand Duke's carriage turned into a public square, and threw his bomb directly into the carriage window. The effect of the explosion was frightful; the Grand Duke was blown literally into pieces. The circumstances of this terrible affair recall vividly the assassination of the Grand Duke's father, Alexander II., who died in much the same way. The assassin of Sergius was instantly seized; he is said to have shown no excitement and to have remained silent under all questioning. His identity has not been ascertained, but some reports declare him to be a student. As to the effect of the deed upon Russia's hopes for political reform, it may be said, on the one hand, that assassination, like lynching, is almost invariably harmful to the very cause it would aid; for instance, the death of Alexander II. probably retarded constitutional government for a generation; on the other hand, the Czar may regard the assassination as only one more proof of the existence of an intolerable political condition which must be dealt with immediately and broadly, not in a spirit of hatred and revenge. As yet the Czar has given no indication as to whether he will or will not accept the Zemski Zobor or land parliament system of representation which has lately been strongly urged upon him.

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Mr. Balfour's Position

Although the by-elections all through the recess went against the Government, and although Mr. Chamberlain obviously had the worst of the argument in the discussion on the fiscal question which went on while Parliament was out of session, when Parliament met last week Mr. Balfour still adhered to the position which he took up in 1904 regarding the fiscal question and its connection with a general appeal to the constituencies. Mr. Balfour and his colleagues of the Cabinet are as much committed to some change in the fiscal system of Great Britain—to some movement in the direction of protection—as is Mr. Chamberlain. This fact is beyond question; for since the Cabinet was reorganized in September, 1903, consequent on Mr. Chamberlain's retirement and the withdrawal of the Duke of Devonshire, Mr. Ritchie, and other free-trade members, a Cabinet Minister has rarely made a speech in the constituencies in which he has not advocated some part of Mr. Chamberlain's scheme. Under these circumstances it is beyond denial that fiscal reform has become what is known in England as a Cabinet question. It is no longer a mere academic question. Mr. Chamberlain's epoch-making speech in May, 1903, and his subsequent withdrawal from the Cabinet in order that he might be in a better position to continue his agitation, put the question far beyond the academic stage; for it thus became the one question on which public attention in England was riveted. In 1867, when Mr. Gladstone committed himself to the disestablishment of the Irish Church, there was a dissolution of Parliament; and a dissolution followed in 1886 after Mr. Gladstone had unsuccessfully sought to carry the House of Commons with him on the question of Home Rule. The precedents are in favor of an early dissolution on the fiscal question; and Mr. Asquith was certainly in order last week when, as an

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amendment to the motion expressing the thanks of the House for the Speech from the Throne, with which the session had been opened, he moved that a representation be made to the King "that the various aspects of the fiscal question have been fully discussed in the country for nearly two years, and that the time has come for submitting the question to the people without further delay." Much discretion had been shown by the Opposition in the wording of this amendment. It suggested no want of confidence in the Government; nor did it suggest that the country had lost confidence in the existing House of Commons. Had the rank and file of the Tory party been in downright earnest to bring the question of protection before Parliament and get it settled one way or another, the Asquith amendment would have given them an opportunity of declaring for a dissolution. Had Mr. Chamberlain been really sincere in his often repeated statement that a general election cannot come too early for him, he would have voted for the amendment, and have counseled his supporters among the Tories and the Liberal Unionists to support it. If he had given the word, and only one-third of his supporters on the Government benches had acted in accordance with his counsel, the Asquith amendment would have been carried, and the dissolution would have come at once. But Mr. Balfour showed no disposition to change his attitude on the question—the attitude which he took up in the House of Commons at the beginning of the session of 1904, when Parliament first met after the reorganization of the Cabinet in 1903. His position is that there is no urgency for a settlement of the fiscal question, and that, in spite of the turmoil in the country due to the agitation, there is no ground for an appeal to the constituencies so long as the Government has sufficient support in the House of Commons to carry its measures. Mr. Balfour's policy is not in accordance with the usages of Cabinet Government in England, nor with the traditions of fair play for which the House of Commons is held to be famous. It is as though in 1886, after Gladstone had pledged himself to Home Rule and was in possession of a majority in the House of Commons, he had announced that he would postpone his bill until 1888 or 1889, and that in the meantime, with the support of the Irish vote, he would go on with the other measures which were then of the Newcastle Programme. The Irish members would never have consented to such a course; and the Unionists would have raged at the very idea of such an unprecedented proposition. But Mr. Balfour's unexampled audacity has the support of the Tories. Despite Mr. Chamberlain's feigned eagerness for a general election, it is a policy which commands his support; and the outcome of the debate on the Address was that the Asquith amendment, which could have been supported by any Tory without disloyalty to his principles or his party, was rejected by a majority of 63.

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The Religious Education Association

An organization which first drew breath only two years ago, yet has already a membership of two thousand, and hopes to double that before another twelvemonth, might well command respect for its vigor and energy; but the men and women who make the long list of membership and the high purpose of the Association demand more attention than has yet been accorded it from the press. The meeting of this Association in Boston last week was an event of great moral significance. Scores of sessions were held, fifteen at a time, in various halls scattered through the city (each department having its own programme), in addition to the mass-meetings of the general Association. Forty States and Territories and several European countries were represented, and more than twenty denominations, yet there was almost no allusion to difference in creed. It was inevitable that there should be some allusion to it in a programme which included a paper on the co-operation possible in religious education between Roman Catholics and Protestants, by Dr. Shahan, of the Catholic University. And though he found little hope for such co-operation, he ad-

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mitted that in moral ideals and in efforts to carry out those ideals in reference to suicide, divorce, corruption in business and politics, greed of wealth, etc., there ought to be harmony. His contention was that in schools the teacher is the pivot on which instruction turns, and to be a proper interpreter of moral and religious themes he must be rooted and grounded in his own faith. Still, there ought to be common ground on which all could stand to teach the common doctrines concerning God, the soul, the moral law, sin, moral responsibility, prayer, and divine providence. Throughout the various sessions the life that now is was the theme, as though by common consent all the speakers had agreed to take one world at a time. But the schemes to improve this one covered the whole range of life from birth in the home, through all grades of school, business, and professional life and in every land. One of the most interesting meetings was that devoted to the methods and results of religious teaching in German and French schools, in China, in Japan, and in India, each country having a sympathetic speaker. The difference between the Oriental ideas and those of the Occident was forcibly brought out. In the East the emphasis is laid on the organization; with us it is put on the individual. Which is to be supreme? It is the great problem properly to combine the two ideas. "How can we combine them?" asked Dr. Knox. "How hold the immense advantages that come from the exaltation of the individual and how escape the evils of excessive individualism? It is the great problem for the future, and on the solution of that problem—the preservation of the sacredness of the individual, along with the clear value of the organization—depends real progress in ethics. When we have set before us that ideal, we shall find the way to inculcate it in the family and in the school."

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Spiritual Leadership

Two addresses among the many were, perhaps, more discussed than any others—"Science as a Teacher of Morality," by Professor Coulter, of Chicago, and "The Ethical Education of Public Opinion," by President Pritchett, of Boston. Dr. Coulter showed that the scientific mind is pre-eminently open to moral truth, and though science does not replace religion as a teacher of morality, yet in so far as it contributes to morality it reinforces religion. Science is not interested in theology, but it is immensely interested in morality and in religion. It is interested in Jesus as a spiritual leader, because he represents the highest type of man, an ideal that one might follow even were there no historical Jesus. President Pritchett said that the great service which educated men can render to-day is to become leaders in whose hearts shall be the simple religion of Jesus Christ, without the theology of the Church which calls itself by his name. Men will no longer accept authority outside their own consciences, but leadership plays as strong a part as ever. These leaders must show men how to grow in their own hearts the flowers of true religion, how to see in their own skies the stars of everlasting hope and truth, how to keep alive in their own hearts love and unselfishness and the power of communing with the Father of all. The future leadership of the people must be the result of the growth of a true religious life in the hearts of men. Dr. Crothers, of Cambridge, urged the leaders of the great army of public opinion to unite to fight the besetting sins of the American people, which, in English as plain as the prophets would have used, are lying and stealing. In this battle of the Republic all can unite, Catholic and Protestant, Jew and Gentile. The annual conventions of the Association, of which this was the third, furnish stimulus for an undertaking that continues through the year. It is no small service which the Association renders in furnishing a platform on which men of various faiths can speak with freedom and without controversy; but it is an equal service that it renders in bringing together the various agencies for religious education in their regular daily activities.

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A Great Lawyer

The American bar has never lacked men of high character and commanding ability; but Mr. James C. Carter, who died at his

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home in New York City last week, was by general consent the leader of the bar of his time. Other men surpassed him in the possession of certain gifts; no man was his superior in representative character. Mr. Choate once said of him, "When he retires, he will make room for a thousand lawyers." A New Englander by birth, fitted for college in an old-fashioned New England academy; graduated from Harvard, where he took high rank as a student and writer, and where he was a prominent member of the Alpha Delta Phi fraternity and of the Phi Beta Kappa; completing his professional studies at the Harvard Law School, Mr. Carter entered a law office in New York, and made very rapid progress in his profession. He bore a leading part in many of the foremost legal controversies of his time. He was a member of the Constitutional Commission of New York State in 1888; he was counsel for the United States before the Behring Sea Tribunal which met in Paris twelve years ago and adjudicated the dispute between this country and Great Britain. He was in demand as a speaker on many occasions of the foremost importance in his profession and in the country at large, and whenever he spoke he commanded the closest attention and the greatest respect. Law was to him, not a trade, but a profession, and, to use old-fashioned phraseology, he adorned his profession with dignity of character, of life, and of mind. He had wide learning, a cultivated and delightful style, ease of speech, and charm of manner. He was an old-fashioned gentleman in the best sense of that phrase; a man who gave distinction to his vocation, who treated it as a public function, and in all the relations of life was conspicuous for integrity, for the sense of honor, and for unfailing loyalty to the highest standards.

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Viva Voce Voting

It is rather surprising that at this late day an effort is being made to return to the method of viva voce voting, but such is the proposition which has been seriously made in Kentucky. An amendment to Section 147 of the Constitution of Kentucky has been proposed which provides: "That all elections by the people shall also be viva voce, and made matter of public record by the officers of election according to the directions of the voter." Kentucky has had a modification of the Australian ballot, which is primarily or at least approximately a secret one, but the politicians seem to wish to compel the voters to disclose how they vote, so they propose to revert to a system which has everywhere else been abandoned. We cannot imagine a more deliberate effort to introduce terrorism into our election laws than this proposition.

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General Lew Wallace

Perhaps no writer of fiction was more widely known in this country than General Lew Wallace, who died at his home in Crawfordsville, Indiana, last week. His life had passed through three distinct stages. In the early part of his career he was a soldier. He volunteered in the Mexican War as a mere boy, and at its close had barely passed his twenty-first year. At the outbreak of the Civil War he again entered the army as a volunteer, discharging his duties and meeting his responsibilities with a courage which won warm commendation from his superiors, and with a promptness and vigor which brought him the cordial recognition of General Grant coming as one of the great rewards of his services. He was by profession a lawyer, but the second stage in his career was that of a diplomatist. As Minister to Constantinople he acquired a considerable knowledge of some aspects of Oriental life, and above all, as in Mexico, he felt the charm of local atmosphere and responded through his imagination to the appeal of history and tradition. The third stage in his career was distinct in itself, although not to be separated from his experiences as a soldier and a diplomatist. The time he spent in Mexico bore fruitage in later years in his first novel, "The Fair God," published a full generation ago; it showed some of those qualities which later gave him his popularity—an impressionable mind and quick, responsive pictorial imagination. His great popularity, however, followed the publication of "Ben Hur," which

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attained an immense sale without any of the usual methods of exploitation. This phenomenal popularity was due to a combination of a subject of universal interest with a brilliant pictorial treatment. "Ben Hur" is in no sense a notable and enduring work of fiction. It is rhetorical rather than literary; the product of a fervid imagination susceptible to and possessing considerable power of investing a story with atmosphere. It appealed to a host of readers because it touched their religious sensibilities; it appealed to others because of the series of brilliant pictures which it contained. As a work of literary art it lacks construction, shading, restraint, and deep feeling; the style is glittering and full of extravagance. It was the product of the contact of a susceptible imagination with a fresh environment, rather than of a creative mind dealing at first hand with a theme which profoundly appealed to it. General Wallace was a man of great courage, high character, and unflagging industry, who won distinct popular success.

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The New Russia

There have been few national tragedies more impressive in magnitude or somber in accessories than that which is now being enacted in Russia. The situation is peculiar from many points of view. Louis XV., derisively called the "well beloved," entirely dissipated the tradition of affection and respect which surrounded the French monarchy. Louis XVI. was tolerated but not beloved. He inherited not only a vicious system and a broken-down government, but a spirit of indifference towards his family and throne. Nicholas II., on the other hand, came to the throne with the devoted love of his people, which was the heritage of his house and its most valuable possession. The whole Russian people were eager, so far as they had awakened to the situation, to follow his leadership in any line of action which would bring them in touch with modern life and permit the soul of the country to express itself in normal political activities under normal economic conditions. With a blindness as great as that which fell upon the French court, the Emperor refused to meet his own people; and the pathetic spectacle is now presented of a sovereign who might have led his people whither he would, but who by his own blindness and the incredible folly of his advisers has entered upon a life-and-death struggle with those who used to call themselves his children.

The assassination of the Grand Duke Sergius adds another to the accumulated horrors of this national tragedy. The modern world abhors assassination, and refuses to believe that freedom advances by desperate acts of violence; but Europe is not blind to the fact that what the autocracy has sown the autocracy is now reaping; that tyranny has evoked the specter of revolution, and repression created the opportunity which the Destructionists have been swift to employ. Several years ago an American who knows Russia well was expostulating with a Terrorist against the method of that group of men, and declared that assassination was so abhorrent to all the Western peoples that it set back rather than advanced the cause of liberalism. The Russian, a man of university training and the highest personal character, met this protest by telling the story of his own life, beginning with his arrest as a student in the university for the possession of a volume of Emerson's "Essays," a second arrest because a volume of Herbert Spencer was found on his shelves, a third because Mill "On Liberty" lay on his desk. Then came the arrest of his sister, because he was a suspect; her discharge and rearrest, her violation in prison, her contraction of tuberculosis, her death under the burden of shame, horror, and disease; the closing of all avenues of advancement to him, his banishment, and the scattering of his family. This story was told quietly in the space of an hour. At the end of that hour, walking the floor, filled with horror and burning with indignation, the American said, "Why did you not appeal to the courts?" "Because every judge in Russia is the creature of the autocracy," was the answer. "Why did you not give publicity to these facts?" "Because every

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printed line in Russia passes under the eye of the censor." "Why did you not appeal to the Czar?" "Because the Czar cannot be reached; he is surrounded by an impenetrable wall." "Then," said the American, realizing that the man was absolutely without redress after the most appalling outrages, "I should have killed somebody." "Ah," said the Russian, "you have become a Destructionist in an hour; it took eight years to make one of me."

This incident explains the reason why the Terrorists are drawn in many cases from the most highly educated men in Russia. They are not peasants, they are men of university training; they are not vulgar murderers, they are men who believe that every other method of redress has failed, and that they are performing a terrible duty; and they are willing to lay down their lives to execute it. As Brutus held himself not an assassin but a public executioner, so the Terrorists accept what they regard as their mission and discharge what they regard as their duty, not as murderers, but as public executioners. The six or seven assassinations which have taken place during the last few months have been so many applications of lynch law by the Russian people; justified in the eyes of the men who have performed them by the fact that there is no legal means, by court, by press, or by appeal to authority, of securing redress. The Outlook does not justify these acts of violence; it abhors them; but it is endeavoring to explain them.

A duel is being fought between the Czar and the Russian people, and it can have but one end. Although the members of the autocracy seem unable to comprehend it, the old Russia has passed away as completely as the France of the old régime has gone. A new Russia has grown up in the last twenty years. How it has grown was explained in an article by Madame Breshkovsky which appeared in these columns three weeks ago, and further light is thrown on the subject in an article by "Wanda Ian-Ruban" in this week's issue of The Outlook. In the January number of the "Nineteenth Century" Prince Kropotkin tells the story of the constitutional agitation in Russia, and of the appeal for better economic conditions by the peasants and the working people in the factories, and declares that every Russian is interested in the destruction of the political yoke which binds all classes, and that the cry, "Down with the autocracy!" has been wrung from a patient, loyal, and naturally obedient people by an experience which has become intolerable. To-day every section of Russian society has spoken. Petitions from the nobility, protests from editors, definite and frank expressions of opinion in daily newspapers, resolutions of local assemblies, courageous utterances of university teachers, have poured in upon the Czar or upon those about him for some time past. If the Czar had any imagination, he would see himself surrounded by every class in the community, holding out their hands and begging him to do something for the salvation of the country. Through organized methods of agitation; by a large literature systematically distributed; by teaching from house to house; by the opening of schools; by the reading of fiction; by the organization of centers of discussion, through the meetings of the zemstvos, Russia has been permeated by knowledge of the terrible economic and political conditions under which she is living; and to-day it is a new Russia that surrounds the Czar.

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The Arbitration Treaties

From all action taken by either the legislative or executive branches of our Government, an appeal lies to the people of the United States. The Outlook takes such an appeal from the action of the Senate in refusing to adopt general treaties of arbitration with foreign Powers. The fact that these treaties have been negatived and are not likely to be revived by the present Senate is no reason why such an appeal should not be taken, and the whole subject of international arbitration reconsidered by the people. In a series of three or four articles, The Outlook proposes to tell its readers why it regards this action of the Senate as injurious to the honor and welfare of the people, and why it thinks the defense of that

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action is based upon assumptions which are wholly untenable and are inconsistent alike with any broad interpretation of the Constitution of the United States and any correct understanding of historical precedents.

The Facts. Upon the organization of the Hague Tribunal, the United States entered into a treaty, ratified by the Senate, in which it declared its approval of the principle of international arbitration, pledged itself to do all in its power to insure the peaceful adjustment of international differences, and specifically declared that "in questions of a judicial character, and especially in questions of the interpretation or application of treaties, arbitration is acknowledged by the Signatory Powers as the most efficacious and at the same time the most just method of deciding controversies which have not been determined by diplomacy."

In accordance with this pledge, general treaties were negotiated by our State Department with Great Britain, France, Germany, Switzerland, Portugal, Italy, Mexico, and Denmark, by which it was agreed to leave all questions of a certain class to the Hague Tribunal for final settlement. These treaties, before they were finally negotiated, were submitted to the members of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, and were approved by all of those members except Senator Morgan. They provide in general terms for the submission to the Hague Tribunal of "differences which may arise of a legal nature, or relating to the interpretation of treaties existing between the two Contracting Parties, and which it may not have been possible to settle by diplomacy," . . . and which "do not affect the vital interests, the independence, or the honor of the two Contracting States, and do not concern the interests of third Parties." It is evident that under this clause it would be necessary, whenever any difference should arise, to have some method of determining whether it came within the classes defined by this paragraph. For that purpose the following clause was incorporated in the treaty:

> In each individual case the High Contracting Parties, before appealing to the Permanent Court of Arbitration, shall conclude a special Agreement, defining clearly the matter in dispute, the scope of the powers of the Arbitrators, and the periods to be fixed for the formation of the Arbitral Tribunal and the several stages of the procedure.

The Senate has amended the treaty by substituting the word "treaty" for the word "agreement" in this paragraph. The President has declared in a published letter to Senator Cullom that, in his judgment, the effect of this amendment is to nullify the treaty and make it a "step backward," and, this being his judgment, he regards it as his duty not to attempt to secure its ratification by the foreign Powers. In this judgment The Outlook concurs. The amendment converts the treaty into an agreement to refer to arbitration any differences which may arise, provided that when they arise the Senate is willing to refer them to arbitration; or, in other words, as The Outlook has already said, to affirm that "we agree that we will agree when we agree to agree."

This amendment is defended on the ground that the Senate has no Constitutional power to adopt general treaties of arbitration with foreign Powers, as negotiated with the State Department. It is this position of the Senate which The Outlook regards as wholly untenable.

The Law. The Constitution of the United States provides that the President "shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present agree," and that "all treaties made, or which shall be made under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land." Under this clause of the Constitution the President and Senate, acting together, have power to make any treaty with any foreign Power, provided it is not expressly prohibited by some explicit provision of the Constitution. They could not, for example, make a treaty to provide for an establishment of religion in the United States, or for abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or for establishing slavery in any place subject to the jurisdiction of the United States, because the Constitution explicitly provides that these things shall not be done. Power to do them has been

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expressly denied to Congress by the people of the United States. But, subject to this general principle that the Senate cannot do anything which the Constitution expressly prohibits, the President and the Senate may, under Article II., section 2, make any treaty they see fit, with any foreign Power. They could make a treaty agreeing that all questions which might arise between the United States and any foreign Power should be referred to the Hague Tribunal. They might select any specific class of cases, as, for example, all questions arising between Canada and the United States, or all questions respecting the fisheries. The power conferred upon them by the people of the United States in this clause of the Constitution is absolutely unqualified.

In this case, the State Department has negotiated treaties by which a certain class of differences, to wit, those of a legal nature, or those relating to the interpretation of treaties, shall be referred as a matter of course to the Hague Tribunal, unless they affect the vital interests, the independence, or the honor of the two contracting parties, or concern the interest of third parties. There can be no question that under the Constitution the President and the Senate of the United States have power to make such a general treaty as this.

When a difference arises, how shall it be known whether it is of a legal nature or whether it relates to the interpretation of treaties? How shall it be known whether it affects the vital interest or the independence or the honor of the two contracting parties, or concerns the interest of third parties? The Senate and the President of the United States, acting together, have entire power, under the Constitution of the United States, to refer this question to any one they see fit. They might provide in the treaty that the Pope of Rome, or the King of the Belgians, or the Empress of China shall decide the question. They might provide that if the question should arise whether a difference proposed to be submitted to the Hague Tribunal came within the differences described in the treaty, that question should be submitted to and decided by the Hague Tribunal itself. They might provide that either of the contracting parties might lay its case before the Hague Tribunal, and the other party might plead that the case did not come within the class of differences defined in the treaty, and so deny the jurisdiction of the Court. And certainly the President and Senate, acting together, have equal power to say that the question whether it comes within that class of cases shall be decided by the President, in agreement with the foreign nation between which and the United States the specific difference has arisen.

It is nothing to the purpose to say that no agreement with a foreign country which binds the United States can be made by the President alone, without the advice and consent of the Senate. An agreement by the President that a particular case falls within the class of cases which the Senate has already agreed to refer to the Hague Tribunal is not an agreement with a foreign country made by the President alone, without the advice and consent of the Senate. The Senate has already given its advice and consent that any case which the President thinks is of a legal nature or relates to the interpretation of treaties existing between the two contracting parties shall be so referred.

The question at issue in this case, then, is not at all a question between the relative powers of the President and the Senate. To argue as though this were the case is wholly to misapprehend and wholly to confuse the real question. That question is not, What is the power of the President? or, What is the power of the Senate? but, What is the power of the President and the Senate acting together? Have the President and the Senate, acting together, power, under the Constitution, to agree that all cases of a certain kind shall be referred to the Hague Tribunal, and to agree that some person designated beforehand by the President and the Senate shall decide, as each case arises, whether it comes within the class of differences which they have before agreed to refer to the Tribunal? We do not see how it is possible for any one who reads the clause of the Constitu-

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tion on this subject to doubt that it confers this power on the President and the Senate acting together. In defense of its dignity the Senate has denied its own authority. It has set aside the fundamental principle that where the Constitution makes no limit there is none, so clearly stated by our correspondent Mr. Wheeler in another column, and by Chief Justice Marshall, as quoted by him.

That the action of the Senate in denying its own Constitutional power to make a general treaty of arbitration, and to authorize the President to determine whether specific cases come within that general treaty, is as inconsistent with historical precedents as it is with any broad interpretation of the Constitution, we shall show in a future article.

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The Needed Revival

The great revival now spreading through Wales is reported as in a marked degree ethical, evinced as such by the reform of dissolute lives, the discharge of defaulted debts, the forgiveness of offenses, the reconciliation of estranged neighbors and relatives. But while these are fruits, they are not the full fruits of a religious revival that is thoroughly ethical. It would be a mistake to suppose either that such reforms fully meet the ethical demand upon loose lives, or that the demand has already been satisfied by the virtuous lives which need no such reforms. Yet such a mistake is widely current. The religious revivals now in progress here and there among us, and others for which there is present hope and preparation, need a higher ethical note, if the full demand, whether of ethics or of religion, is to be satisfied.

In the Sermon on the Mount, which is justly regarded as Christ's interpretation of the fundamental principles which he had come to inculcate, he draws sharply the distinction between a morality which consists in attempted conformity to an external standard, and one which consists in the spontaneous manifestation of an inward life. "Except," he said, "your righteousness shall exceed the righteousness of the scribes and Pharisees, ye shall in no case enter into the kingdom of heaven." The scribes and Pharisees were scrupulous in their obedience to certain rules and regulations of conduct. The righteousness which Christ commended was that of men who were blessed because in the secret springs of their character they were poor in spirit, meek, hungry for righteousness, merciful, poor in heart, peace-possessing and peace-making. The one righteousness is a servile if not reluctant obedience to rules; the other, a free, joyous, spontaneous life; the one rests in the attainment already made, the other is an eager pursuit after an unattainable ideal; the disciple of the one thanks God, "I am not as other men are;" the disciple of the other recognizes the truth that he who ceases to become better ceases to be good. As the Rev. R. J. Campbell, the well-known minister of the City Temple in London, has said in a recent sermon, "The supreme spiritual need of the hour is a strenuous morality." True; it needs proclaiming from the housetops; only let there be no mistake as to what strenuous morality is. The first duty of a true morality is not obedience to a recognized standard; it is the duty of hastening the evolution—to borrow Herbert Spencer's phrase; the duty of ever pursuing after that ideal set forth by Jesus—"Be ye perfect even as your Father in heaven is perfect."

The revival of religion that is thoroughly rather than superficially ethical must draw the line, as it has not yet been drawn for popular apprehension, between the really and the conventionally moral life. Professor Ladd, speaking as a Christian man, plainly told the churches not long ago that their moral condition was "relatively low and nerveless"—a statement on which The Outlook commented at the time. Not, of course, that they were not living up to current standards of morality, but that they were not striving toward advanced standards, not "forgetting the things which are behind, and stretching forward to the things which are before," but supinely tolerating existing evils. Well is it that there have always been a few disturbers of the vain dreams of those who are not

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as thoroughly moral as they think themselves to be. "The now prevailing standard of respectability," said Thomas Hill Green, "would never have been reached, if the temper which now acquiesces in it had been universal."

The distinctive note of the barbarian temper is its disinclination to the effort that achieves advance toward civilization. "It costs too much to be a white man," said one such, in his content with his wigwam. Closely paralleling this indifference to the material ideals of civilized life is the temper of many who are reputedly, but not really, "good people." It is justly to be characterized as moral barbarism. It is seen alike in the so-called moral man outside the church, deeming himself moral because free from vice, and in the church member who thinks himself in sufficiently good standing while lacking aspiration and effort to become as his Master. The religious revival which would make Christian morality luminous must at the same time split asunder the cave of this moral barbarism, in whose darkness, mistaking respectability for morality, enormous evils flourish within hearing of church anthems.

It is in this darkness that there flourishes also the sharp and false distinction that many fancy as existing between morality and religion or spirituality, damaging both by putting asunder what God joined together. To quote Mr. Campbell again: "What has spirituality to do with morality? Everything." "The moral ideal," says Wundt, "belongs to the realm of the infinite." The spirit of devotion to it is essentially religious. Real morality, or, in Biblical phrase, righteousness, is the divinely prescribed liturgy of religion. The phrase "mere morality," widely current in religious circles, is utterly fallacious. There is no such thing. What the phrase mistakenly describes is the conventional morality that masquerades as what in reality it is not.

The nineteenth century was a century of moral as well as of material progress. Great evils were banned, great reforms achieved, great philanthropies introduced. The extensive advance thus made needs now to be matched by an advance that is intensive, in regenerating the popular idea of morality, distinguishing the conventional counterfeit from the sterling reality, quickening the social conscience to the work of casting out devils, and warming moral custom into moral passion. Those who would promote this now imperative advance must adopt the watchword given by the author of "Ecce Homo:" "No heart is pure that is not passionate, no virtue safe that is not enthusiastic." Amid abounding signs of moral torpor and decay, what fitter word for the time?

And what so fit instrument for arousing this passionate enthusiasm as retelling and reinterpreting the story of Christ's life, and reawakening a passion like that of Paul to "win Christ and be found in him"? Such a passion must be awakened to take the place of that conventional if not reluctant consent to abstain from the deeds which society condemns and to fulfill more or less laggardly the obligations which society recognizes and enforces, which often passes current for morality. To be moral in this twentieth century after the birth of Christ is to follow him, to obey his new commandment "that ye love one another as I have loved you," to come as he came, not to be ministered unto but to minister, to possess his spirit of gentleness and of forcefulness, of patience and of heroism, of service and of sacrifice, and to carry it into all our complex modern life, political, industrial, social. This spirit so applied is morality whoever possesses it, and, whatever his ecclesiastical connections or lack of them, it is also religion. Anything less than this, at least as a standard by which to judge our life and a goal to which to direct our life, is immorality, and no garments of respectability, social or ecclesiastical, can make it other than immorality. Nothing is moral which is less than a passionate and purposeful pursuit of the highest ideal which the soul is capable of entertaining. The only power adequate to generate and sustain such a spirit is a strong and deep religious conviction of the reality and practicability of this ideal, a conviction that it has been and can be a realized ideal. This, let us hope, is to come in a revival of religion more profoundly ethical than any that has blessed the world since Pentecost.

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Some Possibilities in the Russian Situation

By Wanda Ian-Ruban

Readers will remember the article called "What Defeat Would Mean to Russia," by the author of the following paper. As was stated when the former article appeared in The Outlook, "Wanda Ian-Ruban" is by marriage a member of a family of the old Russian nobility, and more than one of this family have been driven from Russia merely for trying to prevent disregard of existing law by those in authority, and for protesting against the unjust treatment of others. The writer has traveled through Russia and has had unusual opportunities of knowing actual conditions.—THE EDITORS.

THERE are not a few intelligent Americans who will confess that, at the time of its publication, they considered Mr. Kennan's narrative of his observations in Siberia exaggerated, even hysterical. They know well now that Mr. Kennan understated rather than exaggerated the conditions which he found, so great was his restraint. Ten years ago the specious misstatements of Grand Duke Sergius Alexandrovitch, to name but one of those to whose interest it is to converse politely with the interviewer whom they would best like forcibly to eject, would have met with credulity on the part of the casual reader. To the latter all Russian exiles were terrorists, every political assassin a madman or a degraded criminal. Even the spoken and printed words of Stepniak, himself a political assassin, whom Mrs. Julia Ward Howe recently spoke of as "that splendid man, Stepniak," as also of Kropotkin, reached a comparatively limited circle of sympathizers. Nor is it so very long ago that the present Czar was generally considered to be weak, perhaps, but well-intentioned, prevented by unscrupulous relatives and ministers from carrying out plans for the well-being of his people. It was even supposed that on account of these plans, so hateful to his *entourage*, he was held almost as a prisoner in order that no word of the pressing needs of his faithful subjects might reach him. Now all that is changed. Not only upon the venality of the bureaucracy, the corruption of the court, has the light of American public opinion been turned; even the Czar himself, known at last as he really is, has been forever judged. No one is any longer able to doubt that he is perfectly aware of the dire need of his "children," and that he is more than passively culpable of the crimes which make horrible his reign. It is now matter of common knowledge that the same amiable potentate who sends postage-stamps upon the request of an unknown American child allows Russian children by the scores and hundreds, together with their parents, to be butchered when they dare to appeal to him to save them from starvation. A weak Czar he is, and a false and a cruel; and now at last Americans, in spite of their disapproval of Anarchism, which they too frequently confuse with anarchy, no longer shrink at the thought of the only means by which Russia will ever gain her freedom. The passionate cry of "Down with autocracy! down with the Czar!" has been answered by a thrill of satisfaction in many a dispassionate breast. But all this is already of the past. The revolution has begun. The tiny spring unsealed eighty years ago by the blood of a handful of dream-lured aristocrats has continued to grow, augmented by the tears, the blood, of other aristocrats, of nobles, of peasants, spreading through secret and underground courses, until the very foundations of the autocracy are irreparably undermined.

As the desire of the people for freedom has spread, so has the idea been broadened as to what constitutes that freedom. The so-called constitution of Loris-Melikof would be approved by no constitutionalist of the present day; though, for that matter, neither Loris-Melikof nor his master ever called his

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scheme for reforms by that fateful name. In 1879 the zemstvo of Chernigof made bold to send to Alexander II. a humble petition begging him to consider the matter of granting a constitution. For this temerity the member who had formulated the petition spent thirteen years in exile, and the other signers, some thirty in number, received notice of the Emperor's displeasure. Loris-Melikof himself, describing his plan, said that it had for its leading idea "the practicability and opportuneness of attracting local leaders to a deliberating conference in connection with projects of laws, to be prepared by the central Government, concerning those questions acknowledged by the Emperor to be appropriate, because of the developing and perfecting of the reforms proposed by the Emperor." To carry out this idea of "strengthening practically a fruitful union between the Government and the best forces of society," Loris-Melikof offered as examples certain of the more pressing questions: "to define the rights and duties of the local governing bodies; to review the laws for the zemstvos and for the cities, etc." After the proper material had in this way been prepared by the central Government, and appropriate laws had been drawn up by a temporary committee composed of the heads of the departments of the Government, summoned to this service by the Emperor, the supposed constitution was to consist in bringing together a commission of delegates chosen in the provinces and in certain of the large cities to listen to the debates of the Ministers in the State Council concerning the proposed laws, and to express their opinions together with the latter. As Peter Struve writes: "It reminds one of the tribunal of the third year of the first Napoleon, with the important exception that the commission summoned by Alexander II. was to have been a temporary one." Yet the Emperor, after listening to Loris-Melikof, exclaimed anxiously, "But that is the 'États Generaux'!" Such was in reality the celebrated "constitution of Loris-Melikof." But even then the task of preparing the people for real freedom was going on, and, like a baneful parasite, the Romanofs still cling to the noble tree of Russian national life, sapping its vitality, preventing its fruitage, it will not now be for long. The very sap they batten on is becoming transformed to a deadly poison for them, nor is there one of them who will not sicken and fall.

The revolution has begun. What does that mean? The deluge is here. After the deluge, what? The vast majority of all of those Russian patriots who are fighting to win freedom are agreed in desiring to substitute for the present autocratic régime some form of stable government; but here, to a casual observer, the unity seems to end. The Liberals state that they desire to see established a constitutional monarchy, consisting of the Sovereign and an Imperial Douma, or Parliament, the latter to be made up of two houses—the House of Delegates of the zemstvos, elected by the zemstvos and the town councils, and the House of the People's Representatives, elected by general suffrage, the ballot to be secret and direct. The franchise as well as the right to sit in the House of Representatives would belong to every male citizen over twenty-one. Apart from the Imperial Parliament there should be established three local parliaments, in Finland, Poland, and the Caucasus. On the other hand, the ideal of the Socialist Revolutionists is a democratic republic made up of separate States, with universal proportional suffrage. The Social Democrats will under no consideration swerve one jot from the teachings of Karl Marx, and inveigh equally against "landlord" liberals and the Socialist-Revolutionary "bourgeoisie." The peasants' unchanging demand is for "land and freedom," for they know that for them freedom without control of the land they cultivate would be scarcely more than a mockery. Then there are the endless shades of difference in opinion within the parties themselves, as well as in the different nationalities concerned.

How is harmony ever to be evolved from this medley of conflicting opinions and programmes? When one considers the successive rise, reign, and final overthrow of faction after faction which marked the progress of the French Revo-

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lution, or even if one recalls the fact that within that relatively small group of the founders of our own commonwealth it was no easy matter to achieve anything like unanimity, one must vividly realize the grave problems which face those in Russia who are striving to secure co-ordinated action in the attempt to overthow the present autocracy as a preliminary to establishing a better form of government in its stead. For this reason it seems to me that the event in many ways the most significant in the recent history of the struggle for freedom was the meeting of delegates from the different parties which preceded the meeting of the zemstvo representatives in St. Petersburg. In this conference the most important of the groups or organizations having for their primary object the overthrow of the autocratic régime were represented, with the two exceptions of the Social Democrats and the Jewish "Bund." A good many of the members of the latter organization, however, have affiliated themselves with either the Social Democrats or the Socialist Revolutionists. In all, eight groups sent representatives, these being: Russian Socialist Revolutionists, Polish Socialist party, Lettic Social Democratic Labor party, Georgian Socialist-Federalist-Revolutionists, Armenian Revolutionary Federation, Polish National League, Finnish Party of Active Resistance, and the Union for Liberation. These parties, through their representatives, having arrived at a certain degree of harmony, took practical measures for remaining in touch with one another. They discovered that a valuable unity of action is practicable which does not involve the least present necessity for deviating in any single particular from their separate programmes. Yet that certain concessions were made will be seen in reading the following declaration of fundamental principles:

(1) The abolition of the autocracy; the rescinding of all measures which violate the constitutional rights of the Finns.

(2) The substitution for the present autocratic régime of a free democratic commonwealth on the basis of universal suffrage.

(3) The right of self-determination for each nationality; liberty of national development guaranteed by law to each nationality; cessation of all violence on the part of the Russian Government toward other nationalities.

When one considers that the members of these various groups constitute without doubt the fund from which the leaders of the future will be drawn, the fact of their having been able to reach a definite agreement upon these essential points gives rise to a legitimate hope that the new Government may be a worthy culmination of the long and heroic progress toward freedom. There is, however, one fact which should not be overlooked. The party of the Social Democrats, or extreme Marxists, by far outnumbers every other organized group in Russia, and this party refuses unconditionally to enter into friendly relations with the others. Believing that they shall ultimately convert the whole world to their way of thinking, they in the meantime constitute an impediment which demands serious consideration in every effort at concerted action on the part of the other opponents of the autocracy, as well as a countercheck which the Government well understands how to utilize to its own greatest advantage.

On the other hand, greater than all the above-named organized groups put together is the mass of the peasant population. Unless a peasant becomes a workman, and, in consequence of new conditions and never lessened hardships, a Social Democrat, he is most likely to affiliate himself with the Socialist-Revolutionary party. This party holds that the State should own all land, allowing to each citizen only as much as he is able to cultivate, but does not accept without reserve the teachings of Marx. Just as the workman, suffering for the necessities of life because he has no means of obtaining the money which alone will buy them, sees in the distribution of capital and the means of production the only sure remedy for his malady, so the peasant, to whom the products of the land take the place of money, longs for independent control of his only source of wealth. Like the workman

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who is put off with a pittance which can scarcely avail to keep him alive, while his taskmaster, the factory owner, amasses a fortune by means of his unceasing toil, so also the peasant works only to enrich another, receiving in return, at the best, the least price which will keep him from starvation. Thus it is that in seeking the particular remedy best fitted to the peculiar disadvantages under which he suffers, the peasant is more apt to become a Socialist Revolutionist, the workman a Social Democrat. As both are agreed upon the fundamental principle that the land shall be taken out of the control of landlords, and as both are at bottom seeking but the means of a legitimate well-being, it is very possible that under a free government their disagreement will be rather of the nature of a wholesome system of counterchecking than of a fundamental hostility. At last the peasant, so long a dumb beast of burden, is becoming articulate, and the tongue thus freed for utterance speaks, not words of a base animalism or of degraded superstition, but rather the language of kindly, native wisdom which we of the larger opportunity would do well to learn. In my mind, this fact, that no element of the forces arrayed against the autocracy remains without its definition of essential needs, without its plan, its spoken and written word, constitutes the best safeguard against a recurrence of such excesses as stained the progress of the French toward self-government. Since the differences are those of method, not of aim, and since the very formulation of needs and demands by each group participating in the contest makes it easier to discover the common principles which may serve as a basis for co-ordinated action, leading in turn to mutual toleration and concession, we may hope that the foundations of a stable government will be laid without bloodshed within the ranks of those striving for freedom.

In the history of the movement for liberation in Russia, the characters of two classes of the population are especially worthy of admiration and remark—the peasants and the Russian women. O for the gift of sight for the traveler who is able to find only stolid apathy in the faces of the peasants! If he be a great man, an official, an ambassador, will he not realize that the absence of expression which seems to him the mark of stupidity is in reality one proof of cleverness, for it is a mask? Centuries of miserable experience have taught them caution. They have no way of distinguishing between Russian officials and those of other countries. They rightly say, "It is not in this way that those who wish us well come to us, and to all others we remain inaccessible." Ask Madame Breshkovsky what she thinks of the peasants. "Such dear friends I have among those fine men and women," she will answer, "that I can scarcely speak of them without partiality." But if she had never gone among them except as the *grande dame* who cannot forget that she is a noble condescending to talk with peasants, it is certain that she would have found no friends among them. Yet they are worthy of the friendship even of as great a woman as Catherine Breshkovsky. Such good faces, full of splendid possibilities, these people really have! I take pleasure in recalling so many of them, of workers in the fields, chance passers-by on the road, servants in the houses, toilers without rest or reward. There is not one of them which is vacant or stolid. Far from being apathetic, the peasant is often full of enthusiasm, of life, if for a moment the awful burden of his fate is lightened by confidence or hope. Nor are they indifferent to means of culture, but, on the contrary, seize every slightest opportunity to acquire an education. Yearly more and more sons and daughters overcome incredible obstacles in order to equip themselves for the most various callings. Very recently a distinguished Russian told me that it had been for him a matter of surprise to learn what a large percentage of professional men are of peasant birth.

The women of Russia have taken and are taking so important a part in the struggle for freedom that no history of the movement during the past eighty years would be complete without a long chapter devoted to them and their achievements. From the beginning their work has been as untiring, as de-

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voted, as fearless, as that of the men. It would not be easy to find in the whole history of the world in any other country an equal number of extraordinarily intelligent, heroic, utterly unselfish women. Since the time when those first aristocratic ladies, wives of Decembrists, chose to abandon a life of luxury for one of unspeakable misery and want, solely that they might to some small degree lighten the hard lot of their exiled husbands, thousands upon thousands of women and young girls have trod the bitter paths of exile, have died or gone mad in loathsome prisons, all for the sake of others, to bring nearer an ideal. They do not throw themselves unprepared into the struggle; they have a very passion for knowledge. No course of training is for them too arduous if it will better equip them for their task. Through unremitting effort they have gradually acquired some opportunities for a higher education in Russia. They starve in foreign universities, grateful for the freer privileges accorded to women there. Russia was the first country to permit women to practice medicine, a boon granted to a certain extent in recognition of their unusual services as nurses. In 1899, Prince Kropotkin writes, there were already six hundred and seventy regular women practitioners. The ultimate motive of all this zeal for study for every kind of technical and professional training is almost invariably an ardent desire to help the people, to contribute to the realization of the dream of freedom. It has long seemed to me that there is no country in the world whose women should have so much in common with the women of America as Russia, and I believe that this will become more and more apparent when once Russia is a free country. Extraordinary interest is shown by Russian women in all the vocations and avocations of American women, an interest which reveals itself by exhaustive and sympathetic questioning. Yet never once in my experience did a Russian woman express envy of our happier lot, or the longing that she might live out of danger and free in England or America, but only the hope that Russia might one day, even if not during her lifetime, offer equal opportunity for happiness to her women. It is indeed a cause for bitter laughter to hear dissipated bureaucrats, who are involving their country in disgrace and ruin, stigmatize the pure patriotism of such women as treason.

This unusual character of the Russian women cannot but exert a distinctive influence upon the nature of the free institutions destined to be evolved, even as it has, now in one form, now in another, left its impress upon the development of the spirit of freedom. The animating spirit of the movement known as Nihilism, which is described as a revolt against the conventional lies of civilized mankind, that spirit which led young girls to crop their hair and to don coarse garments, as a symbol of their contempt for every sort of sham, lives still in their sincere, unaffected daughters and granddaughters. Any like movement toward sincerity and earnestness in all relations of life would be of little avail wlthout the active co-operation of women. I, at any rate, believe that the outward form which the social life of a country assumes, whether for triviality and lifeless convention, or for wholesome simplicity and interests worthy of consideration, depends directly upon the character of the women of that country. In Russia social intercourse is singularly simple, genuine, and vital, and the new political life which will one day rise upon the basis of this social life cannot but partake of its nature. Neither Socialist Revolutionists nor Social Democrats propose any save an educational qualification for voters, the franchise to belong otherwise to men and women alike. Even the Liberals, who are in most things conservative, offer no serious objections to woman's suffrage. Kropotkin spoke truly when he said of Russian women that they have conquered their rights.

Thus the material of the new Russia is to be sought in (1) the various organized groups; (2) the great mass of the peasantry, unorganized save for a small percentage affiliated chiefly with the Socialist Revolutionists; and, last, like a golden chain binding all these together, the Russian women. A serious problem

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for the new government, containing more than one element of danger, will exist in the Don Cossacks, successively the Cossacks of the Ural and of Siberia, as they continued to migrate farther eastward. These Cossacks, not to be confounded with the Cossacks of the Dnieper, long since incorporated in the great mass of the south Russian population, had their origin in a group of malcontents, thieves, escaped criminals, deserters from the army, and others of like ilk, who gradually became professional robbers and brigands. Receiving constant reinforcements, and attaining to some degree of organization, they spread into Siberia, which they conquered during the reign of Ivan the Terrible. For this service they received from him absolution for all their previous misdeeds, and extensive grants of land in the newly acquired territory. Long since become a mixed race, composed chiefly of Russian, Tatar, and Persian elements, they are quite distinct from the rest of the Russian population. They are splendid horsemen, but cowardly by nature, ferocious and invincible only when in overwhelming numbers or opposed to unarmed men, women, and children. They have been systematically bred by means of bribes and rewards to their office of bloodhounds and murderers. There is, however, hope that these people may be gradually assimilated to the surrounding populations beneath the beneficent influence of a free government.

From now on, of course, opportunity awaits the man who has power to lead his fellows. Already during the recent acceleration of events one admirable leader has come into prominence from the most unexpected source, the priesthood. Only one thing is not possible—for a man to appear who would be strong enough and clever enough to save for long the autocratic régime. The undoubtedly able ex-Minister of Finance, Sergei Julievitch Witte, has long been planning to accomplish this very thing, but his carefully laid plans have failed, and he must soon forever disappear from the scene, where there will no longer be a place for him. Outspoken bureaucrat that he is, he must stand or fall with his master, the Czar. No one in Russia will be willing to forget that he has said these words: "Believe me that if our Emperor was of another opinion, I should be the first to speak like Chicherin and Gradovsky,[1] but I look upon myself as the clerk of my Emperor, and his opinions are unconditionally monarchical." The Liberals distrust Witte because of a State document[2] of which he was the author, and which the editor of "Osvobozhdenie" found means of reprinting. The thesis which M. Witte defends in this little book is that the autocracy and the zemstvos are absolutely and in their essential nature mutually incompatible; that the very existence of either must constitute a constant menace to the other. He is hated by the agricultural population because his whole fiscal policy was based upon their systematic starvation, and made possible by this alone. Peter Struve, editor of "Osvobozhdenie" and formerly a noted professor of economics in Russia, writes: "The financial policy of Witte is founded upon the activity of the balance of trade, and this balance of trade is based upon the chronic famine of the people. The insufficiently nourished Russians export annually millions of pounds of bread, notwithstanding the fact that in Russia the yearly production of bread per capita is less than that *consumed* during the same time in other countries. If in Russia the nourishment of the population corresponded to that of Germany, not to mention England or the United States, Russia would, in the present state of agricultural productivity, not only not export, but would be compelled still to import, bread." When one considers the fact that the ultimate fund guaranteeing the gold standard in Russia is not the gold heaped together in the State Treasury, but the ruined lives of the peasants, the cold, the hunger, and the despair of these human beings out of which the gold is minted, then one is compelled to ask himself whether it is indeed a national blessing. On December 30, 1902, the general session of the State Council, reviewing the expenditures for the fiscal year, found that "during

[1] Scientists known to hold liberal opinions.
[2] "Autocracy and the Zemstvo." A Confidential Note by the Finance Minister, State Secretary S. J. Witte, published by Peter Struve in 1899, in Stuttgart.

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the fifteen preceding years additional taxes had been levied on lodgings, also excises upon matches, naphtha, and sugar; that the excises imposed upon alcohol, wine, beer, and tobacco had been increased; that the customs tariff upon articles of domestic use, such as tea and cotton, had been raised; the amount of revenue stamps had been augmented; new taxes were introduced in connection with ore-testing, also upon steam boilers and locomobiles; the taxes upon commerce and industry, including those on leases, were reorganized and greatly increased; the State monopoly of the sale of spirits was generally introduced, and their prices raised to correspond to the increasing of the excises upon all spirits bought by the population at wholesale. These measures gave to the State Treasury during the said period, by an approximate calculation, one and a half milliards of rubles; but the paying powers of the population have their limits, which cannot be transgressed without inflicting a corresponding injury upon the economic wealth of the country. On the latter is based not only the financial welfare of the country, but its internal strength and its international significance. It is necessary immediately to adopt measures for the maintenance of the State expenditures upon a level corresponding to the normal growth of the common State income. Special attention should be directed to the phenomenon already pointed out by the Department of the Interior, and also by the Minister of Finance, that the balancing of the accounts of common income and expenditures for the year 1903 without a deficit was possible only under the condition that the taxes temporarily imposed in order to meet certain contingencies in the Far East should be continued. It is evident that the growth of expenditures already exceeds the normal growth of income." In his "most humble" report for 1902 the State Comptroller writes concerning the peasants of South Russia: "This chronic increase of debts for the redemption of the land becomes finally a tangible witness to the degree by which the burden of taxation laid upon the agricultural population by the redemption debt exceeds its paying power and its strength to bear. To remedy this there are necessary more radical measures for the lightening of the burden of taxation laid upon it. Of course the present crisis is not a hopeless disease. It is the result of an artificial and immoderate growth of industry, which has far outstripped the buying powers of the internal market." Witte himself in a confidential report writes: "The masses are as if condemned to remain in the old desperate condition, and it is perfectly natural that their paying powers are strained. . . . To no small extent the cause of this strain upon the paying powers of the rural population is the rapid growth of the State expenses, chiefly of those which, from the point of view of economics, are non-productive." In 1902 Minister of Finance Witte, in a speech before the State Council, distinguished the economic history of the railroads into three periods. During the first of these, 1885–94, it was necessary to pay out of the State Treasury large sums for subsidies and improvements. Then there began an income which in 1896 reached a maximum of 11,300,000 rubles. With the opening of the Siberian Railroad the pure income began to diminish, and in 1899 it fell to 1,020,000 rubles. From 1900 began the third period, of rapidly growing deficit. "In 1900, 2,060,000 rubles were paid out by the Treasury; in 1901, 32,090,000 rubles." Witte continues: "In 1902 the deficit will reach the sum of forty-five million rubles; in 1903 it will not be less than fifty-one millions. If to that is added nine millions for the exploitation of the Chinese railroad, the deficit will not be less than sixty millions." This unfavorable change in railroad economy the Minister attributed chiefly to the enforced building of railroads of a political or strategical character. And yet it is Witte who is the indorser, even the author, of this financial system.

No, neither Witte, for all his ability, his energy, and his tremendous ambition, nor any other bureaucrat, is the man of the future in Russia. New men are needed and they are destined to appear, differing fundamentally in training and antecedents from every bureaucrat. To such men, springing from the heart of

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the people itself, men devoted, broadly educated, without small personal ambition, must Russian patriots look for the fulfillment of their dream of freedom.

To a Dead Poet

By Sophie Jewett

Unchanged, serene, the Roman sky
Watches where Shelley's ashes lie;
About his grave slow ivy creeps,
On stone and wall and cypress sleeps
The silentness of fourscore years;
Yet, somewhere, Shelley's spirit hears,
Indignant, sorrowful, elate,
The story of the Neva Gate;
And, somewhere, Shelley's eyes look forth
On that white city in the North,
Beholding how the snow lies red
With blood of her most holy dead.

Tumultuous heart, yet wise as age
To read the far, sublime presage!
Though snow, new fallen, fold away
That piteous blood of yesterday;
Though a mad people, blind, betrayed,
Wreak blood with blood; thou, unafraid,
Must see no less a lovelier earth
Slowly from chaos brought to birth.

These many years the joyous sea
Encircles reborn Italy,
But thy clear message flashes still,
Kindling men's hearts to deathless will,
Lighting men's holiest thought and speech,
Yet impotent alway to teach
One lesson to crowned bigotry.

O prophet, prophet! dost thou see
How "Northern Anarchs" cringe and hide
To-day, like peasants terrified,
Under the patient, scornful sun,
Bourbon by Romanoff outdone?
I think thou hast no eyes for these,
So transient are earth's tyrannies;
Only the stricken hope divine
Reaches that high abode of thine;
And thou art glad among thy peers
To see men offer blood and tears,
Exile and life, in sacrifice,
Even as of old.
Thy Southern skies
Know the keen call of battling truth;
Poet, in thine immortal youth,
Come back to us one hour and sing
The grief and glory of this thing!

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The Need of a Continuous Building Programme for the Navy

By Henry Reuterdahl

Associate Member United States Naval Institute

Readers of The Outlook are familiar with Mr. Reuterdahl's name from having seen his striking illustrations of naval ships and scenes which were printed in these pages to illustrate the History of the American Navy by ex-Secretary Long. Mr. Reuterdahl is intimately familiar with naval life and personnel, both at sea and ashore. He has, therefore, the unusual advantage of possessing the point of view of the officer and seaman as well as of the civilian. He speaks with a knowledge and authority which deserve consideration and respect. The Outlook has stated many times its own position on the question of army and navy appropriations. It is hardly necessary to say that we are opposed to what is called "militarism," and ardently hope and confidently believe that international wars will grow fewer in number and less frequent in occurrence as the idea of international arbitration and an International Supreme Court strengthens and develops. But it is equally clear to us that when legal procedure becomes the method of settling all international difficulties, there will still be need for an efficient army and an efficient navy. This is especially true of the navy. The navy should be a great scientific, international police force, whose officers and men are patriotic, lovers of justice, and determined to see the laws of nations obeyed at all hazards. Thousands of New York citizens have never had a collision with a policeman, nor needed his assistance; but that does not make it any less desirable that the policemen of the city of New York should be well developed, physically and mentally, strictly examined for fitness on their entrance into the force, able to reason with a disorderly person at one time, and to knock him down, if necessary to save life or property, at another; well equipped with suitable uniforms, accurate revolvers, modern station-houses, telegraphic signal systems, and fleet, high-bred, and well-trained horses. Like a modern police force, the navy should be looked upon, not as an instrument of destruction, but as an instrument of protection and conservation. We therefore differ radically with those who think the army and navy are necessary evils, and should simply be tolerated, if not repressed. What number and what kind of battle-ships and cruisers, however, constitute the necessary standard of efficiency for the navy is not for laymen to determine. In our opinion, it is the duty of Congress to get the very best expert opinion possible on these questions, and then faithfully and intelligently to follow it.—The Editors.

THE navy means much to us; it has been our pride, and its brilliant men have ever been the darlings of the people. The great deeds of Decatur and Farragut have brought a realization of its everlasting importance to our history, and made us understand the full meaning of sea power as part of our National future. Still, the past proves that this very navy, even from the day the indomitable Paul Jones hoisted the flag on the Alfred, has been fettered by political indifference and its natural growth retarded by conditions which, in many cases, have been drawbacks to its military progress. Its decay after the Civil War, when our ships were the laughing-stock of the world, was never checked until the people, through a strong President, demanded a naval defense, and compelled Congress to make the White Squadron an actual possibility. And from the building of the last cruiser of this squadron—even then unworthy of a great country—the navy grew, not according to a carefully considered programme, but by spurts of legislative liberality, resulting in a motley collection of ships of little military value. Not until 1890 were our first real fighting ships, the three Indianas, authorized. These were followed in 1892 by another battle-ship and an armored cruiser. Then came two years of economy, with appropriations for auxiliary craft only—small gunboats, torpedo-boats, and the like; and in 1895 the two Kentuckys were authorized—in

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reality monitors of high freeboard and with turrets superimposed, a system never approved nor copied by any other navy; and during the year following, the appropriation was granted for the three ships of the Illinois class.

The conquests of the Spanish War necessitated a larger navy, and public opinion was brought to bear on Congress, which responded by authorizing eight battle-ships and six armored cruisers. Of the battle-ships three are in active service and four of the cruisers are about to be commissioned. So, to-day, the success of our arms afloat must rest upon a fighting fleet composed of seven first-class battle-ships, five coast defense battle-ships, the Texas, and six armored cruisers, of which two are old and inferior in design, and ten monitors—for coast defense only.

This does not include the ships building, but those actually completed and ready for instant service. Nor does it cover the large number of smaller cruisers, gunboats, torpedo craft, and submarines, which are only auxiliaries to the big ships which are, after all, the backbone of the navy.

The backwardness of our builders in executing their naval contracts has been and is a retarding factor in the growth of the navy. In no other country, with the exception, possibly, of Russia, is there so much delay encountered in war-ship construction—five to six years being the average time consumed in building our ships from the date of contract until the date of hoisting the commission pennant. These delays in many cases are due to the fact that many of our shipyards are new to man-of-war construction, and do not possess the adequate force of technicians and skilled workmen needed for such tasks. The slow delivery of steel and armor are also part of the causes; and, too, it cannot be denied that our shipbuilders have not been hurrying their war-ship orders when busy with commissions from private sources. The result is that, of the twelve ships authorized in 1899, five battle-ships and two armored cruisers are still in the hands of the builders.

It will be many moons before the two Connecticuts and the two Tennessees are ready, and years and years before the six new battle-ships and the two armored cruisers are afloat; and then, even with this increased sea power, our naval force is not sufficiently strong to meet all comers. Collected in one great fleet, these ships would make a formidable display of strength; but divided into several squadrons on both sides of the coast, the decrease of united power in each would obviously lessen their strategic value; and as their speed is only battle-ship speed—eighteen knots—they are not able to make sudden spurts from one sea to another should the occasion demand it. Carrying the white man's burden of colonization, we need additional ships to protect our outlying possessions, and to do this effectively we must have a large number of seagoing fighting ships, powerful and of great radius of action. They should be reinforced by swift armored cruisers, well protected and carrying their guns high above the water line. As the speed of a fleet is that of its slowest member, the ships of each class should all be alike in speed, and equal offensive power would also increase their tactical value as battle units. But such a fleet cannot be established by spasmodic and haphazard legislation, as during the past, and can be obtained only by the adoption of a carefully planned building programme covering a period of years. Such a continuous programme, worked out by a general staff of seagoing officers, should, say for twenty years, guarantee the establishment of a homogeneous fleet, meaning that for twenty years the progress of our naval defense would go on safely and the navy grow, undisturbed by the changing tide of Congressional politics, and that each year a certain number of ships would be added to the naval list, some as new additions and others to take the place of the earlier vessels, worn out and made obsolete. To-day there seems to be no hope of getting Congress to listen to such a programme or to consider its importance to the country. For many years our naval men have urged its adoption and eloquently set forth its virtues, but their pleas have made no impression upon the lawmakers. Nor will they ever convince Congress of its

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merits until the people and the press stand shoulder to shoulder and make it a National issue and force Senate and House to act.

A similar programme has built the German navy. It was conceived by the Emperor, worked out by his naval staff, and that it was carried out in its entirety is due to the German people, whom the Kaiser educated to the understanding of the need of a sea power as the insurance on a growing commerce. He had naval leagues formed where the questions of the navy were intelligently put before the masses, lectures were given, and small gunboats and topedo craft were sent up the rivers so as to give the inland Germans an idea of ships and their meaning. Stimulated by the motto, "Unser Zukunft liegt auf dem Wasser" (our future lies upon the sea), the Kaiser and the Germans made their navy what it is—next to the English the most efficient in the world—one which will in 1908 reach a total of thirty-eight battle-ships, fourteen armored cruisers, thirty-eight smaller cruisers, and ninety-six seagoing torpedo-boats.

How is it with us to-day? The navy stands again at the door of Congress asking for the alms of existence, praying for the ships it so sorely needs; and as beggars cannot be choosers, it must accept the two battle-ships promised and do without the ships recommended by the general board, the authorization of which the President so warmly indorsed. But the Congressional committees in a frenzy of economy have refused to accept the suggestions of trained men, and their refusal may mean much to our future. We are about to build the Panama Canal, and these ships would have helped to swell the fleets that are to guard the Isthmus and maintain our status in South America; for with each twelve-inch gun added to the navy the Monroe Doctrine grows more secure. Say what we like, while the Hague Conference is the goal of mankind's wish for eternal peace, peace just now sleeps behind the big battle-ship and the swift cruiser. The supremacy of the East is argued, not at this tribunal, but in Manchuria and in the Yellow Sea with bayonets and shell; and the mastery of the Caribbean is likely to be in the hands of that nation which is the strongest.

In carefully considering the uneven growth of our navy, which at various periods has been almost stagnating, it cannot be denied that the traditions of the past, of the earlier wars, have weighed heavily upon our lawmakers in their navy-making. Because we improvised frigates in 1812 and ninety-day gunboats in the War of the Rebellion, many believe that even in these days a navy can be improved upon at short notice, and that the argument of preparedness is not only a club used by the navy in compelling Congress to increase its machinery, but that its doctrines are very much overrated. Thinking ourselves able to wrestle with any problem, and proudly pointing to past history as proof of our ability to do so again, we develop during peace time a spirit of "we'll lick them, anyhow," and forget that it is cheaper to prepare before war than to vote, after war breaks out, some fifty millions for war material which cannot be bought instantly. The Spanish War caught us poorly prepared, and it was only good luck and the utter demoralization of an enemy which made our victories so easy. The success of Japan has preached the lesson of naval and military preparedness, but its meaning has not been grasped by Congress, although fully understood and constantly advocated by our high naval officers who know that unpreparedness is the surest road to defeat.

Conditions to-day are somewhat better, but far from satisfactory to the navy. With the present number of officers and men it is impossible to man all our fighting ships, and with the Naval Militia not fully developed in sea efficiency, except in some instances, the shortage in personnel becomes a serious factor. This Congress must remedy very soon; and there are also many who believe that a new method of promotion by selection in the higher grades should be introduced, its advocates claiming that the present system of advancement by seniority does not further the highest war efficiency of a great navy.

The question of repair stations in the West Indies, which is generally conceded

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as the future theater of war, is also a grave question yet to be solved. There is to-day no navy-yard south of Norfolk able to repair any of our battle-ships, should one become seriously disabled. There is a floating dock near New Orleans, but without facilities for making heavy repairs; and there is not even a modern machine-shop in the whole of Cuba or Porto Rico, and unless the proposed naval station at Guantanamo becomes a reality, the nearest haven of repair must be Charleston, where a new navy-yard is now in course of construction.

But, above all, the navy as it stands, with all the new ships completed, is not yet strong enough to win over the combined fleets of a first-class foreign power. The excellence of our personnel would not succeed alone, nor our splendid target practice; for in the matter of straight shooting our probable enemies are our equals, and we can win only if our ships are greater in number, greater in power, and our preparedness more thorough.

It would be conceit to believe that our leaders, because they are ours, are cleverer in strategy and tactics than a possible antagonist's. The underestimation of an enemy has lost many a battle—Spain yesterday, Russia to-day—and the ones who keep their eyes on South America are fairly smart in naval matters. Our tremendous resources may, in the end, win any war, but it would be cheaper to build and maintain a powerful fleet than be humiliated by a first defeat. Our next war will be no reconnaissance in force like the Spanish, with its steam yachts as cruisers and banana-boats as battle-ships, but the bona-fide article fighting against the well-equipped squadrons of a vigilant enemy.

The ships which are to be authorized by the present Congress will be of the largest displacement possible—17,000 tons as the maximum, and will carry heavy batteries of ten or twelve inch guns, probably ten in number, augmented by a large number of smaller guns as defense against torpedo craft. A high continuous belt of thick armor will protect their hulls, and as all the turrets are to be installed on the main deck, some thirty feet above the water-line, they can fight their guns in any weather, and as their great size makes them independent of any sea, they become truly seagoing fighting ships.

Twenty of those war-horses added to our present fleet would forever keep the dove of peace fluttering over our gables.

Modern Alchemy: The Transmutation of Matter[1]

By Robert K. Duncan

Professor of Chemistry in Washington and Jefferson College

AMID the shifting scenes wherein they live, men have always believed in the existence of an underlying reality or unity of which the ordinary changing forms of matter are but a superficial manifestation.

"There abides in nature a certain form of matter which, being discovered and brought by art to perfection, converts to itself all imperfect bodies that it touches." This is a saying of the ancient alchemy, and it constitutes a proposition from the rooted belief in which have sprung many centuries of sweaty, toilsome, futile effort.

"In chemistry we recognize how changes take place in combinations of the unchanging." This is the statement of chemistry, the daughter of alchemy.

The two forms of statement are alike in this, that they postulate an underlying essence of simplicity and perfectness.

With the alchemist this simplicity lay in a certain substance. Commonly it was called the philosopher's stone, and later the elixir of life. By means of it, if one could but come at it, it was pos-

[1] This article will form a chapter in a book by Professor Duncan to be called "The New Knowledge," to be published before long by Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.—THE EDITORS.

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sible, at a touch, to transmute all metals into gold, and, by drinking it, to gain eternal life on earth.

The possibility of transmuting one metal into another seemed entirely reasonable to mediæval men, and, taking their point of view, it *was* reasonable. They were imbued with the idea of growth and change. They saw that plants and animals grew from one form into another, and, if so, why not metals?

Here is something of the argument between Subtle and Surly in old Ben Jonson's "Alchemist," in which Subtle is endeavoring to persuade Surly of the transmutability of the metals, and incidentally to cozen him out of his money:

Subtle: No egg but differs from a chicken more
Than metals in themselves.
Surly: That cannot be.
The egg's ordained by nature to that end,
And is a chicken *in potentia*.
Subtle: The same we say of lead and other metals,
Which would be gold if they had time.
. . . . . .
. . . . for 'twere absurd
To think that nature in the earth bred gold,
Perfect in the instant; something went before.
There must be remote matter.

This remote matter was, of course, the philosopher's stone, which Subtle was about to prepare at Surly's expense. The lines in which Subtle concludes his argument are interesting:

"Besides, who doth not see in daily practice
Art can beget bees, hornets, beetles, wasps,
Out of the carcases and dung of creatures;
Yea, Scorpions of an herb, being rightly placed?
And these are living creatures, far more perfect
And excellent than metals."

If "art can beget bees . . . out of the carcases and dung of creatures," why, the production of gold out of lead ought to be, in comparison, a simple task, for certainly a bee is a more complicated structure than a metal. But Surly is proof against the subtleties of Subtle, and says:

"That alchemy is a pretty kind of game,
Somewhat like tricks o' the cards, to cheat a man
With charming;"

and so, in truth, it was.

That wonderful transmuting stone still evaded the mind and hand of man to find.

The years rolled on, alchemy glided into chemistry, and the search for the one simple perfect thing capable of transmuting by its touch one element into another became itself transmuted into the study of "how changes take place in the combinations of the unchanging"—the unchanging things being what the chemists called the *elements* of matter, gold, iron, copper, and the like. The alchemists, fanatics, knaves, or knavish fanatics, gave place little by little to investigating men of another type, keen-minded, accurate, and conservative in their judgments; pre-eminently men who did not believe in fairy tales. Robert Boyle in 1681, in the title of his book, "The Skyptical Chymist," defines, in general, the character of all succeeding chemists, for "skyptical" they have always been beyond even the followers of any other science. Beginning with Boyle, these men gradually displaced the alchemical "simple, perfect essence" by a thoroughgoing belief in the existence of from seventy to eighty *elements* which they found it impossible to break down into simpler bodies, and out of which in their various combinations the world of matter is made. These elements were undecomposable, unchanging, simple things. It is true that chemists were always careful to guard their definition by the statement that the elements were undecomposable *so far as they could do*, and simple *so far as they could see*, but the underlying assumption of two hundred years of chemists was that the elements were simple, unchanging bodies. Gold was gold and iron was iron, and any attempt to make them other than themselves was the proper function of the men of a thousand years hence. Of course there were men who divined rather than reasoned that this simplicity and unchangingness were apparent rather than real. Thus, in 1811 we find Davy saying, "It is the duty of the chemist to be bold in pursuit. . . . He must recollect how contrary knowledge sometimes is to what appears to be experience. . . . To inquire whether the metals be capable of

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being decomposed and composed is a grand object of true philosophy." Again, in 1815, Faraday uses similar terms when he says: "To decompose the metals, to reform them, and to realize the once absurd notion of transmutation, are the problems now given to the chemist for solution." But these were voices crying in the wilderness, and the possibility of the transmutation of one element into another was, on the part of everybody, deemed as absurd as the existence of the philosopher's stone which, to the alchemists, was to accomplish the work.

We have now to present to the reader some remarkable facts. Let us leave, for the nonce, all talk of atoms, ions, and corpuscles, and the mysterious rays of radium, to consider in a simple way some straightforward matters of fact connected with radio-activity. We are dependent for these "facts" on the men who enunciate them; but if these men are men of light and leading, if they command the respect of all their confrères, and if they occupy positions of the highest honor and responsibility in the world of science, we *must* have faith in their "facts." Such are the men upon whose *ipse dixit* the facts of the science of radio-activity mainly rest. They are distinctly men of credibility. Having confidence, then, in their statements of fact, let us examine into them.

We discover that there exists in nature a certain well-known "element," uranium. This element is radio-active; that is, it has the power of continuously emitting rays. These rays are of two kinds: one, the positively electrified and slightly penetrating alpha-rays, and the other the highly penetrating and negatively electrified beta-rays.

Now, by methods of chemical fractionation somewhat similar to that by which radium is isolated from pitch-blende, it has been found possible to separate from this uranium another substance altogether; and, furthermore, it turns out that this separated substance is entirely responsible for the beta-rays of the original uranium, the substance from which it was extracted giving rise only to the alpha-rays; the extracted substance is known as uranium X. This fact is followed by another. The extracted uranium X gradually but completely loses its power of emitting the beta-rays, and at such a rate that half of it has disappeared in about twenty-two days; while, on the contrary, the uranium from which it has been extracted regains this power at the very same rate, and eventually becomes as potent as ever. After it has been restored you may, if you like, extract a second quantity of uranium X, and a third, and a fourth, and so on, so far as is known, *ad infinitum*. This is a matter of fact, into which no theory enters. On the basis of this fact, then, we seem compelled to conclude that the uranium is continuously manufacturing from itself another substance, uranium X, which has only a transitory existence; and that the power of emitting these penetrating rays, which an ounce of any uranium compound at any time possesses, is due simply to this uranium X existing therein, the quantity of which depends on a balance between the rate at which it decays and the rate at which the uranium manufactures it.

We may attempt to illustrate this mechanism by constructing a crude analogy.

Let us suppose that we have a full-grown sweet-pea vine, and that the vine is the uranium.

The tendrils of the vine are the alpha-rays from uranium.

The flowers are uranium X.

The scent of the flowers are the beta-rays from uranium X.

Let us suppose, moreover, that we leave the vine strictly alone. We can easily see that there will come a time in our garden when the flowers of the vine will decay as fast as the vine produces them, and that the total number of flowers on the plant will depend upon a balance between their rate of growth and decay. Similarly, there comes a time with the uranium when the amount of uranium X produced decays as fast as the uranium produces it, and the total amount of uranium X in the uranium depends upon a balance between its rate of growth and decay. If we were working with our flowers in the dark, as we are, metaphorically speaking, with our uranium, we might estimate their number by picking them out by their scent; we *do* estimate

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the amount of uranium X formed by the amount of its beta-rays. Now, let us suppose that some dewy morning we snipped off every flower; in other words, suppose we extract the uranium X from the uranium. We now have the flowers with their scent in one hand, and the uranium X with its beta-rays in the other. There remain the destitute vine with its tendrils, and the destitute uranium with its alpha-rays. The flowers with their scent decay in our hand; so does the uranium X with its beta-rays. But the vine begins at once to restore its flowers with their scent, and soon has as many as before; so does the uranium soon restore its uranium X with its beta-rays. We must not be misled by our analogy: the plant produces its flowers by growth, the uranium its uranium X apparently by decomposition.

"But," you say, "do you mean us to infer that the element uranium (*the element*, mind you) is transformed into a totally different body?" We may as well face the issue squarely. Yes. We do. Furthermore, we believe that it is changing at a definite rate every second of the day, day in and day out forever, or at any rate so long as any of it remains. We believe that we have here a veritable transmutation of matter just as wonderful as would be the transmutation of lead into gold, no more, no less. We believe that the alchemists were right, that matter is not only transmutable but transmuting, and *that* without the aid of any philosopher's stone, diabolic influences, or even the modern appliances of a scientific laboratory. Nay, in spite of them; for, apparently, no human effort can either aid or hinder this process. It seems to be the very symbol of inevitability.

We may now imagine ourselves confronted by an opponent in the form of a chemist of the old school, one whose mind has lost some of its plasticity, so that he does not readily assimilate new ideas, but who, nevertheless, is true to the traditions of his class in being thoroughly "skyptical." We can imagine this gentleman saying: "Pooh! How do you know that this uranium X is different from uranium?" We can answer this question fairly and squarely by the statement that it has different chemical qualities. Uranium is soluble in excess of ammonium carbonate, while the uranium X is not. In a mixture of ether and water the uranium dissolves in the ether, while the uranium X dissolves in the water. There is no better criterion for a difference in nature than a difference in chemical property. "But how do you know," says he, "that the element uranium has anything to do with the matter? You use the uranium in the form of a compound. It is a property of the compound, not of the element." No, it is not. The radio-activity of the compounds of uranium, and hence the amount of uranium X formed, depends solely upon the per cent. of uranium which the compounds contain; and it is a matter of indifference whether it is in the form of nitrate, oxide, or what not. Not only so, but the free element itself is radio-active, and on being dissolved will give rise to uranium X. There is no escape from the fact that the phenomenon is a function of the element uranium itself. "Well," says the old gentleman, testily, "you say that the uranium X is a transitory element (save the mark!), and that it decays. Now, what does it decay into? What becomes of the *dead* uranium X?"

This is an awkward question so far as uranium is concerned. We do not know what becomes of the uranium X, for the reason that it decays into a body which does not emit rays, and its radio-activity is the only means by which we can measure it. The amount of uranium X formed is so small that it would take geological epochs of waiting to secure enough to weigh, much less examine chemically. But if we cannot follow the process farther in the case of uranium, we certainly can in that of an analogous radio-active body. For, just as uranium gives rise to uranium X, so does the element thorium give rise to a similar body, thorium X. Unlike, however, uranium X, the thorium X, on decaying, gives rise to a third radio-active body which has been called the thorium emanation—an emanation, because its discoverer, Rutherford, was unwilling to prejudge the question as to whether it was a gas. On dissolving the thorium

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compound in water and bubbling air through it, this emanation passes away with the air and floats about with it. Its presence is obvious from its ray-emitting power, which is intense. It is certainly not finely disseminated thorium X, because its rate of decay is wholly different. It seems to be a gas. We explain this to our opponent, who lifts his bushy eyebrows and quietly asks, "If this emanation is a gas, at what temperature does it liquefy?" This is a terrible question, for if it is a gas, or matter at all, there must be a temperature at which it will condense, just as steam condenses to water at 100 degrees Centigrade; and our instruments should be able to determine this condensation through its ray-emitting power. We want nothing better, though, than this question. The emanation from thorium condenses sharply at a temperature of 120 degrees below zero on the Centigrade scale to a brilliant patch of phosphorescent light.

We proceed to inform our opponent that not only has the emanation a definite liquefying point, but that it obeys Boyle's law in that, in a definite volume of air, its quantity is proportionate to the pressure; and, further, that from its rate of diffusion through air, or through a porous plug, its density has been determined by well-known methods as about one hundred times that of hydrogen gas. We heap this up by saying that we can even tell the particular family of the elements to which the emanation belongs; for since it is absolutely indestructible and unchangeable under the most drastic chemical treatment, it is, evidently, a gas belonging to the argon family of the elements in the periodic law. This dazes the old gentleman a little, but he returns to the attack. "This so-called emanation is probably nothing but dust in the air which has become radio-active through contact with the thorium. You know that the international congress of chemists has decided that a new element, to have any validity, must have a mapped spectrum. I am going to ask you, then, for the spectrum of this emanation which you tell me is a transmuted element from thorium." This request is hardly fair, for the instruments which measure the properties of these interesting bodies, the electroscope and electrometer, are hundreds of thousands of times more refined than the most delicate spectroscope.

Yet we are able to satisfy him; not, it is true, with the emanation from thorium, for its life is too short. Half of it has died in a minute from the time of its birth, and this is too short a time for the adequate observation of the infinitesimally small quantity of matter involved.

But we can easily satisfy him with a perfectly similar emanation from the new element radium; for the life of the radium emanation is longer.

About the first of June, 1904, Sir William Ramsay succeeded in determining with certainty the position of certain lines in the spectrum of this transmuted element, the "emanation" evolved from radium.

The spectral lines characteristic of the emanation are transient because the element itself is transient, but they are definite, and different from the lines belonging to the spectrum of any other known form of matter.

It is interesting to note in this connection that one of the most persistent of the lines observed is identical with one observed in a lightning flash by Pickering. So sure is Ramsay that the emanation from radium has a definite though transient existence as a true element, that he proposes to give it a definite name as an element, so that it may take its place with others in the Table of the Elements. He has called it *ex-radio, the element evolved out of radium.*

"There is just one thing more," says our skeptical chemist, "that I can fairly ask you to do. These transmuted elements, such as your emanation, are new. Evolve me, now, an element that we *know*—and I shall be an alchemist."

We shall do it. In June, 1903, about one year prior to the discovery alluded to above, Sir William Ramsay and Mr. Soddy discovered that this radium emanation decayed into, or became transmuted into, an entirely different element with which the world of science has been acquainted for years—namely, the element helium. By observing through a spectroscope a spectrum-tube containing

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the radium emanation, they were able to observe the actual birth of helium. At first no spectrum lines characteristic of helium were observed; but presently they appeared, faint at first but ever increasing in brightness until they became unmistakable, and the birth of helium was an accomplished fact. Helium has been a well-known element ever since its discovery on the sun by Lockyer twenty-five years ago, and its subsequent discovery on earth by Ramsay in 1895. We have discovered that it is a transmutation product of the element radium.

"Well," says our chemist, skeptical no longer and with all the humor of his class, "I am like Kipling's elephant when the alligator had him by the nose. 'This is too buch for be.'"

And so, in truth, it is.

We have learned, then, without the use of any theoretical conceptions, and as a matter of simple fact, that certain elements such as uranium, thorium, radium, with as much right to the title of elements as any other, break down or become transmuted into certain other elements also with a perfect right to the title. Certain of these transmuted elements have but a brief span of existence, and are but half-way stages to some final products of decomposition. The following table shows us the duration of existence of some of these transmuted elements:

Name of Transmuted Element.	Time taken for half of body to undergo change.
Uranium X,	22 days
Thorium X,	4 days
Thorium emanation,	1 minute
Radium emanation,	3.7 days
Radium emanation X, 1st change,	3 minutes
2d change,	21 minutes
3d change,	28 minutes
4th change,	200 years?
Final product.	

We know this elemental transmutation only as it is revealed by radio-activity, the power these elements possess of emitting penetrating rays. The instruments by which these changes are traced are hundreds of thousands of times more sensitive than any other known mechanism, but their results are definite and reliable. The amount of elemental transmutation taking place at any one instant is exceedingly small, but it is actual. It is, at this day, beyond the power of man to aid or hinder this process. It seems inevitable.

Twentieth-century science has this work to do. To use the prescient words of Faraday nearly a century old: "To decompose the metals, to reform them, and to realize the once absurd notion of transmutation, are the problems now given to the chemist for solution."

The alchemist became the chemist, and the chemist has become the alchemist.

Every Man a Statistician

By William H. Allen

WORDS, like men and women, have reputations, good, bad, or indifferent, spurious or genuine, borrowed or earned. As with mankind, these reputations are determined by associates as well as by deeds—"Tell me thy company, and I will tell thee what thou art." Words, too, have their courtiers and sycophants, increasing and decreasing in number with their waxing and waning fortunes. People are fairly panicky to be associated with Practical. They are glad to claim acquaintance with any man, any organization, any idea that has the reputation of being practical. They will shun men and ideas and abandon lifelong beliefs and habits charged with being impractical.

Statistics is a word that has never yet acquired a favorable reputation. It is still paying the penalty for early association with technical journals and discussions that were neither readable nor vital. It is the very opposite of practical—the very worst possible—theoretical. As such it has been indicted and convicted without even the formality of a hearing. It is as innocent as Cotton Mather though branded with witchery; said to be abstract, it is most concrete; called impractical, we depend upon it for our ethics, our laws, our statesmanship, our commerce. Like the mysterious stranger,

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the Wandering Jew, statistics, cruelly jeered and mistreated, is resorted to in every manner of emergency, though few will confess their obligations.

The common-sense farmer once controlled his planting and harvesting and fence-building by the moon, just as my lady decided her adventures. The farmer of to-day consults the United States Weather Reports, and wots not whether the milk-pail or powder-flask will hang or fall from the horns of the new moon. The moon is exactly the same—it has merely suffered loss of prestige because of a more accurate count of experiences and natural laws, a revised definition of Practical.

Women discard last season's hats because "nobody" wears that style this year. Men buy broad or narrow-toed shoes because "everybody else" does. School-children plead for this book or that pleasure which "every other child" enjoys. We speak of the coldest summer or the mildest winter, the yellowest newspaper or the driest magazine, the deterioration of domestic service, the immigrant's attack upon American civilization, the passing of the horse, waning democracy or growing socialism, the tendency of American heiresses to purchase European titles, the predominance of the commercial spirit. In uttering these every-day judgments we pretend to have counted and compared, or at least to know some one who has counted and compared—we use the statistical method.

Deride statistics as we may, every day of our lives we make sweeping statements about ourselves, our neighbors, our politics, which are true or not according to the completeness and accuracy of our count of facts. I once lived with a German family in Leipzig for a few months, the second American to enjoy their acquaintance and hospitality. At a social function when all the guests but the American were drinking beer, I overheard my landlady excusing the idiosyncrasies of the foreigner by the remark, "Americans never drink beer; Americans never drink coffee either." She was statistical—only she had counted too few facts. Inefficiency, inaccuracy, ignorance, cannot screen us from responsibility in our use of statistics.

Just as no man is more theoretical than he who scoffs at theory; just as no theory is so impractical as that which declares the futility of theories; so we may differ as to the accuracy of our statistics, but our judgments can be sound only so far as we govern them and our actions by counting and comparing facts necessary for judgment and action—namely, by statistics.

Despite its present humble standing, Statistics is as high-born as Statesmanship; is, in fact, of the same parentage. Primogeniture gave Statesmanship the title and landed possessions, and relegated the second brother, Statistics, to the background. Yet Statesmanship does not make a move without consulting statistics. The apportionment of Congressmen and electoral votes, appropriations for rivers and harbors, pension budgets, postal rates, Government control of illegal trusts—each is based upon count and comparison of facts or supposed facts.

The man who believes that protection fosters industry, and he who calls it public plunder; those who favor expansion and those who deplore it; the inquisitors and defenders of Mormonism—all profess to know and to be guided by the needs and the will of the majority. Practically every detail of government is determined by an actual or supposed count and comparison of interests to be guarded, dangers to be avoided, results to be achieved—by statistics. Even the ward boss relies upon his ability to count accurately the units of strength possessed by principle and by corruption within his district. If wrong triumphs, it is not the fault primarily of the principle of counting and comparing, but rather of the men and women counted.

Stringent laws are enacted to protect health. Yellow and red signs announce contagion; vaccination is compulsory; city milk stores and country dairies are inspected; homes are fumigated, bedding, clothing, and furniture destroyed; unsanitary dwellings are condemned; even Christian Science gives notice of the fever whose existence it denies. Some one has counted the cost of infection, its sources of sustenance, its methods of attacks. The thousands of health

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boards in the United States can be traced back directly to a statistician who counted the cases of yellow fever in Philadelphia, and reported, first, that the poor were the chief sufferers, and, secondly, that the sections in which the poor live furnished more of the conditions necessary for the spread of the disease.

In many States and many cities of the United States no one counts the deaths or causes of deaths; no complete record is kept of births or transmissible diseases. Some citizens claim the inalienable right to have any kind of disease without advertising the fact among their neighbors, while others consider it a violation of the sanctity of their home castle to be catechised as to births or deaths occurring there. But sanitarians have counted and compared, and it is known positively that wherever notice of deaths and births and transmissible disease is not compulsory, there infant destruction abounds, vice and crime flourish, vitality is low, mortality high—there preventable disease imposes grievous financial burdens and unnecessary anguish upon the community.

The daily movements of the manufacturer, the banker, railroad and insurance companies, and magazines are determined by statistics. Overproduction means defective enumeration and weighing of facts, as does an exorbitant rate of interest, an unprofitably low insurance premium, the failure to discriminate in the cost per mile, per pound, for potatoes and for diamonds, or over-emphasis of one subject in a magazine. The so-called progress in business, the construction of vast enterprises controlled by a few men, the growth of circulation from hundreds to hundreds of thousands—these phenomena are due primarily to methods that are worshiped in business as practical, and too often scorned as theoretical and statistical in charitable, religious, and educational work.

Every magazine and newspaper in the country that is progressive keeps together things of a kind where they can be counted and compared. Subscriptions which terminate in June are not mixed with those which terminate in December. The same story is not printed twice; an unpleasant story is printed by mistake at the loss of many subscribers, as a certain magazine will doubtless be able to testify after issuing a Christmas number that featured gruesome photographs of a shocking catastrophe. Popular magazines studiously avoid articles containing statistics or remarks about statistics. This delicate consideration in the reader's behalf is due to the very men and the very methods whose presence and usefulness are kept out of print; to the man who counts interests and results, who separates apparent from demonstrable facts, who is least liable to err—the statistician.

The up-to-date manufacturer likewise studies his business thoroughly. He is not satisfied that last year's profits equal ten per cent. on his investment. He must know whether each line of advertising paid, the net earnings of each salesman for the business, in what special territory and for what special lines of goods expenses exceeded returns. When manufacturers pay for business cards in football, glee club, or school programmes, they charge this disbursement to charity, not advertising. Why? Because candid analysis of past experience shows that such advertising does not pay. The foot-note, "Please mention this magazine when writing to advertisers," is quite as much in the interest of the advertiser as in that of the magazine.

Manufacturers gladly pay city, State, and National taxes for the collection of facts regarding goods and buyers from the four corners of the earth. They organize clubs and conferences, support libraries and trade journals, and install expensive "tickers" in their offices, because they know how necessary it is to have facts counted and compared if they are to adjust output to demand. It was the manufacturer-statistician who revolutionized industry by counting the possibilities and advantages of concentrating the laborers' skill upon one easily mastered task, of substituting co-operation for destructive competition, of utilizing waste in the manufacture of by-products. It was the statistician who revealed to the Englishman that the Chicago packing-houses "used every part of the hog but the squeal."

Nowhere, perhaps, has the statistician

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such undisputed sway, nowhere so enviable a reputation, as among those preeminently practical men, our bankers. Every official within a bank is controlled by statistics. Unlike most professional men, bank clerks have complete and accurate counts ready made for nearly every conceivable situation, so that, thanks to books and machines made by statisticians, it is almost possible to clerk in a bank without knowing how to add, subtract, reckon interest, or compute exchange. A properly conducted bank is never closed at night without a clear understanding as to just how it stands with every depositor as well as every creditor or debtor bank. The banker who repudiates the statistical method in his own business by paying too much interest, failing to make daily balances, or juggling with his reserve, rarely fails alone, but carries with him in his fall many trusting men and women whose scorn for statistics is the *raison d'être* of frenzied finance and frenzied civics.

Life insurance and railroad management have within two generations evolved from speculative to conservative and sound enterprises. For their standing they are indebted to their statisticians. No insurance specialist or railroad president would dare say that he runs his business without the aid of statistics. As well advertise that engines were run with blind engineers, or physical examinations made by men who deny the existence of disease.

An insurance company in England suspected that total abstainers lived longer than moderate or excessive drinkers of alcoholic beverages. A test was made, results counted, and for sixty-odd years this company has made money by insuring total abstainers at a rate much cheaper than that for drinkers. Their count indicates that the average total abstainer thirty years old is apt to live five or ten years longer than the average moderate drinker. Similar statistics have caused all life insurance companies to advertise that they refuse to insure persons who drink to excess. Is there anything impractical in such counts, or the tables which tell the local life insurance agents how the premium advances or declines as the expectancy of life decreases or increases?

Fire insurance companies have similar rate-books, based upon years of experience with combustible matter in its various forms and positions. To correct errors in judgment on the part of the local agent whose experience is limited to his own district, a general agent is sent to adjust rates to risks—to apply statistics to the particular district which is to be insured.

A railroad agent in Oklahoma is not trusted to fix charges for passengers or for freight. His experience is too limited. He has never counted all the facts to be considered. He must, therefore, use the book of rates in which the statistician has counted for him the profitable price per mile, per passenger, or per pound for freight, furniture, or live stock. Because rates were fixed in certain cases without regard to commercial counts—that is, by intriguers instead of statisticians—some of the world's greatest monopolies were made possible a decade or two before such consolidation was desirable. Because statisticians proved the ultimate expensiveness of rebates and favoritism, railroads banded together to impose upon the agents of each and all the same rates—common action in conformity to common facts. Because they have counted past experiences, the railroads made out last month an up-to-date list of passes for representatives of the people. Patrons and officers, not statisticians, are responsible for favoritism, extortion, bribery, by certain—an ever-diminishing number—railroads. I merely suggest that, whatever the policy enforced, it is based upon the managers' count and comparison of the individual facts that constitute the railroad problem.

Our prejudice is so strong against the word statistics that we dub the thing it stands for by other names wherever we accept the count, reserving the word and its implied anathema for those fields and those judgments where the need for counting and comparing is not yet recognized. The metamorphosis of statistics and statistician from terms of reproach into terms suggesting practical, every-day results is like that of our Italian immigrant from "guinny" and "dago" into

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"American citizen." Marks of difference disappear as acquaintance makes us conscious of likenesses. When social, educational, and religious workers put their statistics to practical uses, and habitually base future policies upon past experience, the terms which now excite pity or contempt will be as reputable as "historian," "actuary," "eminent physician," or "captain of industry." Then will social uplift be more certain and more rapid, then will educational, charitable, and religious work be made to conform to practical standards.

Japanese Problems of To-Day[1]

DURING the past twelve months we have had, as we expected to have, occasion to comment on a large number of new books dealing with the two nations whose differences, stretched to the breaking point, have made the Far East a seat of war. Of these books the majority have had to do with Japan, and while far too many bear unmistakable signs of having been prepared to meet a current demand rather than from any serious desire to contribute to our knowledge of the people whose progress has been the marvel of the latter half of the nineteenth century, there are noteworthy exceptions, the merits of which we have gladly recognized. To the catalogue of really important books on Japan must now be added Mr. Henry Dyer's "Dai Nippon," a treatise of so comprehensive and illuminating a character as to warrant its inclusion in the front rank of works aiming to present in compact form an authoritative account of the evolution and present stage of development of the Island Empire. As a matter of fact, Mr. Dyer's monograph contains elements sharply distinguishing it from its fellows. The author was one of those foreigners who did such able pioneer work for modern Japan, having been appointed in 1872 principal of the Imperial College of Engineering, an institution then in embryo but which has proved such an important factor in the upbuilding of the country. This office Mr. Dyer held for ten years, and thus was enabled to study the people at close range throughout a most important decade of the transition period. Since his return to Great Britain his interest in Japan has in no wise abated, and he has been in a position, through uninterrupted correspondence with former pupils who have become known as makers of modern Japan, and through the kindness of officials whom he numbers among his most intimate friends, to keep in touch with the progress that has been made, with the aspirations of the Japanese, and with the problems they are called upon to face. Out of the intellectual kinship thus engendered has grown the present work, designed to afford the foreign reader an adequate idea of the spiritual, moral, mental, and material Japan of to-day, but further designed to assist the molders of Japan in rightly shaping the destinies of their country. It is in the author's discussion of Japanese problems that the highest value of his work lies, and to this discussion we purpose to confine ourselves. For the rest, however, we would say that Mr. Dyer gives a far better idea than do the majority of writers of the part played by foreigners in the growth of Japan, and that, in his exposition of the past and present of the country and its people, he embodies and is in accord with much that is best in the writings of such authorities as Chamberlain, Satow, Brinkley, Hearn, Ransome, Dumolard, and the natives Yamawaki, Okakura, and Yokoi. We know nothing better than this in the way of an introduction to their works. As a literary production, however, we cannot give it an unqualified approval: it is heavy with repetitions not only of idea but of phrase; its diction is at times strangely awkward and at times imbued with the flavor of the "blue book;" while inexactitudes of statement are occasionally to be detected. But the merits are such that much may be forgiven, and it should

[1] *Dai Nippon.* By Henry Dyer. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

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enjoy, as we believe it will enjoy, a wide circle of appreciative readers.

Mr. Dyer is among those who view the modernizing of Japan with mingled feelings of admiration and mistrust. None is readier than he to admit that the introduction of Western policies, methods, and processes has been of incalculable benefit; but he also perceives, and reveals to us more clearly than do most interpreters, that with the blessings of Occidental civilization have come its evils, that out of it have arisen social and economic conditions forming an actual stumbling-block to the continuance of national peace and prosperity. As was inevitable, many of the problems with which America and Europe have long been acquainted have made their appearance to astonish and bewilder the Japanese. "Large fortunes (comparatively speaking) are being accumulated at one end of the social scale, while degrading poverty is appearing at the other, and as yet no effective means have been devised either to alleviate or prevent it. The increased strain, worry, and anxiety, even among the well-to-do classes, make not a few of the older generation look back with regret on the conditions which existed in the days of their youth. . . . There can be no doubt that the problem of the 'submerged tenth' is becoming as acute in Japan as in other countries. . . . The economic position of the agricultural classes does not seem to have improved to any great extent. . . . Modern industrial conditions threaten to take away the joy of young life in Japan, and undermine the national health by the employment of women and children in factories of all kinds, in which the hours are long and the conditions of employment insanitary. . . . The problems of the relations of capital and labor are in Japan, as in other industrial countries, the problems which are certain to attract most attention." It is not usual to think of Japan in connection with Socialism, but Mr. Dyer declares that the conditions indicated above have already given rise to a considerable amount of Socialistic speaking and writing, and adds that one prominent Japanese politician has gone so far as to write a book depicting a Socialistic Utopia. It is evident, however, that Socialism can have but slight attraction for the Japanese mind, and the needed remedies must be sought elsewhere. Mr. Dyer, who is nothing if not a friendly critic, is at some trouble to exhibit the pains being taken by the Government and by public-spirited individuals to cope with existing ills. The chief danger, in his eyes, lies in the swamping of national individuality and the consequent distorting of national ideals. "What I wish to insist upon," he affirms emphatically, "is that the peoples of the East should retain all that is characteristically Eastern in so far as it helps the higher life, and adopt only those Western methods which will enable them to live their own lives in their own way and according to their own ideals." And, again, "The past history of Japan affords lessons which will not be forgotten by Japanese statesmen, although they are not likely to return to a policy of seclusion. While developing their own resources and taking advantage of the applications of science to industry, it is to be hoped that they will retain sufficient of their native philosophy not to allow the struggle for the means of life to cause them to forget the ends of national life; namely, the highest welfare of the great body of the people, physically, intellectually, and morally."

Ingram's ideal of directing all resources to the one end that humanity may be conserved and directed, thus finds favor with Mr. Dyer, who does not hesitate to express his belief that the Japanese above all other nations are capable of being stirred by such an ideal to practical action leading to world-peace and world-welfare. This brings him to the important problems of foreign policy. "It is sincerely to be hoped," he observes, "that Japan, in her own interests, will continue her present policy, abstain from any attempt at territorial aggrandizement in Asia, and confine herself to commercial and industrial intercourse, and to guidance in the rejuvenation of that vast continent. There are too many interests involved to allow any one Power to obtain a dominating influence in the Far East, and especially in China. Free intercourse, without any sign of political

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aggression, is the only bond that will bring about the brotherhood of nations."

In the last analysis, therefore, our author finds that the future of Japan, the happy or unhappy solution of her problems, the adoption of policies that will make or mar, rests on her "moral standard," which he feels constrained to describe as at present very indefinite. Here, then, we see yet another problem of grave significance. In Japanese ethical thought, it appears, three distinct trends are to be detected. "In the first it is argued that the religion and ethics of Old Japan, if maintained in their purity, are sufficient for the wants of the future; in the second, that the materialistic and utilitarian philosophy is all that is necessary; and in the third, that a higher development is required in the direction of Christianity." That Christianity will be the determining factor would seem to be Mr. Dyer's opinion. But he holds, with Shimada Saburo, that "'the Christianity that gains the hearts and minds of the people of Japan will be our own—a Japanese Christianity. It will not be exactly like that of England or of the United States. Just as we have united the Benevolence of Confucius and the Mercy of Buddha, and have made a product peculiar to Japan, so Christianity will be tinged with the national characteristics.'" It is not by the number of professing Christians, large though it be, that we must measure the effects of Christianity in Japan, but by its influence on the national life and thought. And, measuring thus, we perceive that "modern Japan has, to a large extent, as Count Okuma has expressed it, assimilated the best that Western nations possess, and to a very considerable degree has justified the opinion that the nation which has from ancient times imbibed and assimilated the elements of Oriental civilization may produce a new and strong tissue, and this may be done, not by a suddenly professed change of religion, but by a slow process of evolution in which many forces—economic, intellectual, and spiritual—will co-operate." Conversely, Mr. Dyer makes the claim that from the East are streaming back to the West tendencies working to the betterment of the West. Holding these views, it is not surprising to find him give expression to high hopes both of the future of Japan as a nation and of the success of her self-appointed mission "to reconcile the East with the West, to be the advocate of the East and the harbinger of the West."

The Palmy Days of Rome[1]

BY this, as by his preceding volume, "Roman Society in the Last Century of the Western Empire," Professor Dill has laid under lasting obligation those readers who seek to understand the inner life and moral condition as well as the political and external affairs of a given period. The period analyzed and estimated in this volume is one of commanding interest, and also one concerning which many misconceptions prevail even among the well read. The old order was slowly giving place to the new, but the writers contemporary with the change, from whom our current impressions of the time are derived, have transmitted to us their misunderstandings of it. The great social facts in the Roman world of the first century—the emancipation of women from the rigor of the ancient régime, the rise to wealth and power of the freedman and the small trader, the debasement of the old Senatorial character and influence, the invasion of Hellenism and Oriental cults—require, when set in proper light, a large modification of the views of Tacitus, Juvenal, and others. "The truth is," says Professor Dill, "that Juvenal is as much shocked by the 'new woman' as he is by the vicious woman." One might add that the ordinary Bible reader's impression from the first chapter of the Epistle to the Romans, that pagan society was rotten to the core, is as far from the fact as the same impression from the Satires of Juvenal. The

[1] *Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius.* By Samuel Dill, M.A., Professor of Greek in Queen's College, Belfast. The Macmillan Company, New York.

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times, indeed, were unfriendly to virtue, but the corruption depicted both by the Apostle and by the satirist was by no means universal.

The unsapped stanchness of Roman character, notwithstanding the enormities of the first century of the Empire, is clear from the reaction that set in when the line of good Emperors began with Trajan. The letters of the younger Pliny, Trajan's friend, give a charming picture of the social life and literary tone of the time. Not that there had been a sudden transformation from orgy to sobriety, but that lawless wickedness had destroyed itself, while the national ideals of family life and personal worth lived on. For a true picture of Roman society one must modify the acid satirist by the philanthropic aristocrat of Pliny's type. Pliny was but one of a crowd of public benefactors who, in that happy second century of general peace and prosperity, contributed to the free and generous municipal life which was the great glory of the age. But the shadow of the decline and fall, which broods over his picture of this, Professor Dill clearly recognizes in the warning given by contemporary philosophers of the perils of a materialistic civilization. "Is it possible," he asks, with an evident reference to our own environment, "that a loftier spiritual force may find itself helpless to arrest a strangely similar decline?"

The second half of this admirable work is concerned with the philosophy and the religious cults which failed to arrest the descent into the calamitous centuries that followed the culmination of outward prosperity in the Antonine age. The chapters which exhibit "the Philosophic Director," "the Philosophic Missionary," and "the Philosophic Theologian"—in which Seneca is represented as "a pagan Thomas à Kempis," Epictetus as "an ambassador of God," and Apollonius of Tyana as "much nearer to the true ecclesiastic and priest of modern times than any ancient preacher"—abound in personal description and discriminating estimates of men, doctrines, and conditions in the moral revival of paganism, which at once delayed and prepared for its final defeat by the church. Philosophy, indeed, had turned from speculative problems to the practical conduct of life. But here at its best the Stoicism which sufficed for the *élite* failed to grip the multitude. The virtuous will needed in its straits some support outside of itself, a need which religion alone supplies. The religious yearning for this was evinced by the avidity which embraced the Oriental cults of the Great Mother, of Isis and Serapis, of Mithra. With the significance and development of these Professor Dill concludes his work. In their temples, as he says, "we are traveling toward the spiritual mystery and sacramental consolations of the mediæval church"—Mithraism, the most potent of the three, seemingly the highest effort of paganism "to reconcile itself to the great moral and spiritual movement which was setting steadily, and with growing momentum, toward purer conceptions of God, of man's relation to him, and of the life to come."

Where the strength of that movement lay is left for the reader to infer or to guess. Professor Dill has chosen to treat the history of the period in entire disconnection from that of the Christian Church, which at the beginning of the second century, as Pliny testified, had depopulated the temples of remote Bithynia. Already, as the catacombs show, it had drawn in some members of noble families in Rome. While Professor Dill's prescribed limitation seems to forestall criticism, the question can hardly be repressed whether his picture of society in pagan Rome is quite complete without mention of the great regenerative force which was gathering strength within its bosom, and advancing through bitter conflict to victory.

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Advanced Latin Composition. By H. C. Nutting, Ph.D. Allyn & Bacon, Boston. 5×7½ in. 163 pages. $1.

April Days. By Luella Clark. The Gorham Press, New York. 5×7½ in. 178 pages.

A book of verses that doubtless were accepted by the author's circle of admiring friends, but offer no especial attractions to the reading public. They are pervaded by a simple piety and hopeful outlook, and written in unpretentious rhyme.

Book Treasures of Mæcenas. By John Paul Bocock. The Knickerbocker Press, New York. 4½×6 in. 58 pages.

It is rather startling to pick up a volume with this title and open immediately to a poem on "Funston of Kansas." It appears, however, that the book's title is that of the first poem, and that the volume includes many fugitive verses on all sorts of topics, which have been welcome to the columns of many newspapers and magazines.

Call of the Master (The). By Reginald Heber Howe, D.D. Thomas Whittaker, New York. 5×7 in. 91 pages.

Under this title are a half-dozen short discourses during the Lenten season. They seem likely to be effective with a receptive hearer, but to lack the grip that draws the indifferent.

Child as God's Child (The). By Rev. Charles W. Rishell, Ph.D. Eaton & Mains, New York. 5×8 in. 181 pages. 75c.

Collier's Self-Indexing Annual for 1905: A Contemporaneous Encyclopedia and Pictorial History of Men and Events of the Past Year as Recorded and Described by the World's Foremost Specialists in Every Department of Human Progress. Illustrated. J. F. Collier & Son, New York. 8×11½ in. 928 pages.

The avowed object of this large volume is to give the reader in predigested form the political history of the world and of important current events in the fields of labor, industry, science, invention, the arts, sport, education, religion, and sociology. The material has been collated from "Collier's Weekly," is preceded by a sketch review of the year 1894, which is to be highly praised as a model of condensed statement, and is arranged in alphabetical order, with many illustrations. Such a volume is useful as a book of reference, and is particularly welcome in a newspaper office.

Colliery Jim: The Autobiography of a Mine Mule. By Nora J. Finch. Illustrated. The A. Flanagan Co., Chicago. 5×7¼ in. 171 pages. 40c.

Colombian and Venezuelan Republics (The). By William L. Scruggs. Illustrated. (New Edition.) Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 5×8¼ in. 380 pages. $1.75.

Mr. Scruggs's book was first published about four years ago, and has been found a useful repository of historical, political, social, and topographical information concerning Colombia and Venezuela. It has now been enlarged by the inclusion of an additional chapter and by an appendix giving the text of the Hay-Varilla Panama Canal treaty. The new chapter continues the history of the Panama Canal project, from the failure of the De Lesseps Company to the secession of Panama and the final negotiations whereby the right to construct the Canal passed to the United States. While Mr. Scruggs is, as a rule, clear and careful in statement, we note one or two passages liable to mislead the reader. Thus, on p. 341 it is indicated that the responsibility for the rejection of the Hay-Heran treaty lay at the door of President Maroquin, whereas on p. 344 there is the explicit statement that the treaty had been rejected by the Colombian Senate "not only in the hope of getting better terms, but also as a means of dealing a blow to the Maroquin administration."

Constantine the Great: The Reorganization of the Empire and the Triumph of the Church. By John B. Firth. (Heroes of the Nations Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 368 pages. $1.35, net.

There was ample room for a brief biography of the Emperor Constantine along the lines on which Mr. Firth has constructed his present book. Going directly to contemporary sources, and examining them with an eye keen to the detection of bias, Mr. Firth gives in small compass a careful exposition not only of the career and personality of the first imperial champion of Christianity, but of the period to which he belonged and of the nature and extent of the influence exerted by him on his generation and on posterity. In other words, an analysis is made of the elements essential to a correct evaluation of the validity of Constantine's claim to greatness. Naturally, since here lies the chief importance as well as the interest of Constantine's reign, attention is largely directed to the facts of his conversion, to his ecclesiastical legislation, and to the momentous religious controversies in which he played such a leading rôle. While not agreeing with those who, like Mr. Bryce, entertain suspicions of the Emperor's sincerity in embracing Christianity, or with those who, like Dr. Hurst, feel that he was "of all successful rulers the most successful trimmer," Mr. Firth is far from being an uncompromising admirer. Indeed, we cannot but feel that, if only through an excess of impartiality, he paints the shadows at times all too deeply. And, for a similar reason, we gain the im-

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pression that here and there the pagan receives more and the Christian less than his due. We could wish, too, less disquisition regarding the untrustworthiness of the annalists of the period, less detailed picking of flaws—a habit so pronounced as to become tedious. These blemishes, however, are not vital defects. The work is well arranged, well written, and, with the exceptions noted, well balanced.

Credit Man and His Work (The). By E. St. Elmo Lewis. The Book-Keeper Publishing Co., Detroit, Mich. 5¼×8 in. 308 pages. $2.

Democracy and Reaction. By L. T. Hobhouse. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×8 in. 244 pages. $1.50.

A pessimistic view of modern English society by a "Little Englander," a disciple of Cobden, a strenuous believer in Jeremy Bentham and in the Manchester School, who regards all departure from individualism, whether in industry or politics, as a reaction toward despotism, and who yet draws back from the conclusions toward which his own reasoning leads him, and endeavors skillfully, but in our judgment not successfully, to reconcile the individualistic theories of fifty years ago in the industrial realm with the socialistic theories of our own time. To one who believes, as we do, that the present conditions in England and America, both industrial and political, are those of a higher stage of intellectual and moral progress than those of the first half of the nineteenth century, the volume is chiefly valuable as an exposition of perils which attend this progress, and of which society needs to be warned, and against which it needs to guard itself.

Directory of the Devout Life (The): Meditations on the Sermon on the Mount. By F. B. Meyer, B.A. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 214 pages. $1, net.

This popular exposition of Christian ethics as taught in the Sermon on the Mount is in the best vein of its well-known author. But when will devout expositors cease to misunderstand the lesson that Jesus introduces in saying, "Behold the birds!" It is not a lesson of quietism, but of doing the best we can for ourselves while trusting in God's blessing on our diligence. In their way the birds work as hard for their living as we work in our way, but in the freedom from worry that Jesus commends to us.

Electricity in Every-Day Life. By Edwin J. Houston, Ph.D. In 3 vols. Illustrated. P. F. Collier & Son, New York. 5½×8 in.

These volumes aim to give to the general reader a comprehensive knowledge of the history of electricity, the principles and laws that govern its action, and its practical applications in every-day life.

Elements of Analytic Geometry (The). By Percey F. Smith, Ph.D., and Arthur Sullivan Gale, Ph.D. Ginn & Co., Boston. 5½×8¼ in. 424 pages.

Epistles of Paul the Apostle to the Thessalonians. Edited by G. G. Findlay, D.D. (Cambridge Greek Testament for Schools and Colleges.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×6¾ in. 248 pages.

What the highly esteemed "Cambridge Bible for Schools" was designed to be for the reader of the English Bible, this volume is intended to be for the student of the Greek Testament. An indication of its character as a piece of complete apparatus for thorough study is that its eleven pages of text are accompanied by over three hundred pages of Introduction and Notes. The editor has utilized the best of recent as well as of older interpreters.

Epistles to the Colossians and Thessalonians (The). By Joseph Parker, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 5×7½ in. 303 pages. $1.25, net.

The series in which this volume is the first to appear is to be of similar character to the well-known "Expositor's Bible." The present specimen impresses one as Matthew Henry's famous commentary modernized. It is wholly practical and devotional; the problems of the modern scholar lie outside its field.

Evangelistic Note (The). By W. J. Dawson. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×8 in. 282 pages. $1.25, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Forgiveness of Sins and Other Sermons (The). By George Adam Smith, D.D., LL.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 5×8 in. 266 pages. $1.25, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Four Doctrines with the Nine Questions (The). Vol. I. By Emanuel Swedenborg. Translated and Edited by Rev. John Faulkner Potts, B.A. (Library Edition.) The American Swedenborg Printing and Publishing Society, New York. 5½×8½ in. 95 pages.

The theological system of the famous seer is here presented in a new translation by a competent scholar. The "four doctrines" are severally concerned with the Lord, with Holy Scripture, with Life according to the Commandments, and with Faith. The "nine questions" are those which were put to Swedenborg, and answered by him, in relation chiefly to the Lord, the Trinity, and the Holy Spirit. Tables of contents, section by section, an index of Biblical texts, and another of words for the "four doctrines" facilitate reference to all particulars. In paper, typography, and binding the volume is all that a library edition should be.

Garden of Allah (The). By Robert Hichens. The Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 482 pages. $1.50.

A singular but powerful story, in many respects the best work of this author. The "Garden of Allah" is the African desert, and in it two souls, wearied—the one, a woman, by sorrow for burdens not of her own making, the other, a man, torn by remorse for his own great sin—seek peace and happiness. The tale is one of a great passion and of a great renunciation, and from the beginning it is overshadowed by a deep moral tragedy. One finds here a finer purpose than in most of Mr. Hichens's novels, and an absence of the morbidity that is too common with him. There are, however, a plain speaking about the sensual side of passion and a literalness in describing some of

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the more offensive facts of Eastern life that sometimes, it will seem to many readers, overstep the limits of taste. In manner the romance is in an intense style, sometimes a little *exalté*, but never, or rarely, falling into mere high-flown "fine writing," although single passages taken out of their connection might give that impression. The picture of life in an Arab town on the edge of the desert is marked by wonderful minuteness; every one of hundreds of details in such a place has evidently been noted with sedulous care, and all are united into a whole brilliant with color and bathed in African atmosphere.

History and Criticism of the Labor Theory of Value in English Political Economy. By Albert C. Whitaker, Ph.D. (Columbia University Studies in Political Science. Vol. XIX. No. 2.) The Columbia University Press (The Macmillan Co.), New York. 6×9½ in. 195 pages. $1.50.

House of Hawley (The). By Elmore Elliott Peake. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 341 pages. $1.50.

The setting of this story is southern Illinois, and the community is one dominated by Southern traditions yet historically loyal to the Union. Patriarchal family life in the House of Hawley is represented as having many charms. The heroine, introduced in the first chapter, is a most engaging girl, and her love story is the moving cause of joy and sorrow to the whole talkative, affectionate, high-tempered connection. The reader with a memory or family traditions will revel in many phrases and side-lights upon social habits no longer current in the great cities of the East, and rejoice that all America is not as Europeanized as are some of her coast towns.

Hymns with Original Tunes. By J. W. Alfred Cluett. Edwin S. Gorham, New York. 6×8 in. 66 pages.

Kindergarten Activities. By Katharine Beebe. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, Ohio. 5×7½ in. 133 pages. $1.

Kobo: A Story of the Russo-Japanese War. By Herbert Strang. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5½×8 in. 370 pages. $1.50.

Kobo is a Japanese in good social position, who undertakes the perilous duty of a spy. Another prominent character is a young British employee in the Japanese naval service. The adventures and experiences of these and others make up a dashing, exciting story of the sort that boys are fond of. As a vivid dramatic representation of individual doings and happenings in the national tragedy now being enacted in the Far East, it belongs, for the time, to the class of popular books.

Labor Problems: A Text-Book. By Thomas Sewall Adams, Ph.D., and Helen L. Sumner, A.B. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 578 pages.

To set before students in succinct and intelligible form the problems of labor, with all their immensity and complexity, is a task which no author can hope to accomplish without giving many opportunities to the critics. The text-book form in itself is open to the objection that students are invited to accept without due assimilation conclusions for which the authors may have excellent grounds, but which are scarcely justified by the data presented. Dr. Adams and Miss Sumner have, nevertheless, done an excellent service, not only to teachers and undergraduate students, for whom the book is intended, but also to all students of industrial and labor conditions in the United States. In their "Labor Problems" they present a vast array of facts of prime importance. Statistics and tables are freely quoted, and the sources whence they are drawn fully given; though here and there quotations are made without any indication as to whom the author is quoting. The literature recommended for supplementary reading also goes far to cover the field with which an undergraduate student could be expected to be acquainted. In the various chapters, Miss Sumner has treated Woman and Child Labor, Immigration, The Sweating System, Profit-Sharing, Co-operation, and Industrial Education; while Dr. Adams has taken as his subjects Poverty, Wages and Unemployment, Strikes and Boycotts, Labor Organizations and Employers' Associations, The Agencies of Industrial Peace, Labor Laws, and the Material Progress of the Wage-Earning Class. This last chapter—on the material progress of the wage-earners—is probably the one which is most open to the charge of providing students with ready-made opinions, though a similar charge may also be made in connection with Dr. Adams's treatment of trade-unionism. It seems a pity that Dr. Adams, who states repeatedly that England is a generation ahead of America in trade-union organization and labor laws, could not find space for a more detailed history of English trade-unions and a better description of their present organization, with some explanation of the difference between the Old Unionism, which grew up after 1825, and the New Unionism, which first acquired life and strength in 1889 through the London dock strike. In her chapter on Co-operation, Miss Sumner might well have given a little more space to the English Co-operative Wholesale Society, whose enormous activities are barely indicated. It is remarkable, also, that she does not mention the "Co-operative Annual" as a source of information as to the English co-operative movement. The co-operative experiment in slate-quarrying in North Wales, which arose out of the three-years-long strike at the Bethesda quarries, also goes without mention. It is, however, impossible to expect a treatise like this to be exhaustive, and nothing but praise can be given for the painstaking accuracy and wide research of the authors.

Limits of Evolution and Other Essays (The). By G. H. Howison, LL.D. (Second Edition, Revised and Enlarged.) The Macmillan Co., New-York. 5¼×8 in. 450 pages.

In the present edition Professor Howison defines his views more distinctly from the positions attributed to him by his reviewers.

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It is a moral interest by which his philosophy is motived. Apart from spontaneity and freedom there can be no moral responsibility. But the spontaneity and freedom of a moral order seem to rule out the conception of ultimate reality as one sole Being, determining and bringing all things to pass by efficient causation. Therefore, as Professor Howison holds, the ultimate reality must be conceived not as One, but as Many, a society of self-active, self-determining minds, "the City of God," in which God exists simply as "the Supreme Instance" of the common type. Emphatically declaring himself not a monist but a pluralist, he designates his theory as "personal idealism," a name to which professed monists also can lay claim. One may agree with Professor Howison that the names "Creator" and "Maker" suggest implications of God's relation to us that are at variance with the essential postulates of the moral order of the world. Likewise one may say with Professor Howison that the idea of solitary Deity as anterior to all other existence is untenable. Against such a notion the Nicene doctrine of "the eternal generation of the Son" was an early protest, though it was unduly limited, by a low notion of human nature, to the pre-existent Christ. One may also agree with the position implied in the very title of this volume, that evolution, continuous creation, cannot account for the *whole* of human nature, in which there is an element that is uncreated—or, in the phrase of the Nicene Creed, "begotten, not made." But when one finds Professor Howison, in safeguarding his theory from the imputation of polytheism and atheism, placing the essential unity of the Many, including God, in One Reason pervading all, it is difficult to see in his pluralism anything but a special aspect of the monism of which Professor Royce is a conspicuous representative—an aspect, however, that needs to be presented with all the keenness and insistence exhibited in this stimulating discussion.

Little Journey to Norway (A): For Intermediate and Upper Grades. Edited by Marian M. George. (The Library of Travel Series.) The A. Flanagan Co., New York. 5×8 in. 103 pages. 20c.

Little Journey to Russia (A). Edited by Marian M. George. Illustrated. (The Library of Travel Series.) The A. Flanagan Co., New York. 5×8 in. 102 pages. 15c.

Missionary Studies for the Sunday School. By George Harvey Trull. (First Series.) The Foreign Missions Library, New York. 5×7½ in. 64 pages.

Mormon Menace (The): Being the Confession of John Doyle Lee, Danite. Introduction by Alfred Henry Lewis. Illustrated. Home Protection Publishing Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 368 pages.

Pilgrimage to Jerusalem (A). By Charles Gallaudet Trumbull. Illustrated. The Sunday School Times Company, Philadelphia. 4½×8½ in. 437 pages. $2.50.

This is a long and over-detailed account of the cruise of the delegates to the World's Sunday-School Convention held in Jerusalem and of the travels of members of the party elsewhere. It will undoubtedly have interest to members of the party; but the general reader will object to the exact statements as to what hour the party took breakfast and numerous other events of not exactly world-interest.

Pilgrim's Progress (The): From This World to That which is to Come. By John Bunyan. Illustrated in Colour. Adam & Charles Black, London, England. 6×8½ in. 379 pages.

This is an admirable edition, so far as paper, type, and size go. When one looks at the eight illustrations in color, however, one longs for the quaint woodcuts of the early editions of this work.

Pre-Malthusian Doctrines of Population: A Study in the History of Economic Theory. By Charles Emil Stangeland, Ph.D. (Columbia University Studies in Political Science. Vol. XXI. No. 3.) The Columbia University Press (The Macmillan Co.), New York. 6×9½ in. 356 pages. $2.50.

Rabelais. Selected and Edited by Curtis Hidden Page. (French Classics for English Readers.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6×9 in. 394 pages. $2, net.

Although the author disclaims any intention to "Bowdlerize" Rabelais, it was, in point of fact, essential to the plan of the book to do precisely that thing. Further than this, the intention has been to keep intact the romance "with its wit, humor, interest, and historical satire, and to omit only the long, dry ethical and philosophical dissertations." In this the author has been fairly successful, although it must be confessed that it was no slight task for him to render the comic scenes, which, as he most truly remarks, do not altogether conform to the idea of humor of the present day. The volume is the initial one in a new series of French Classics for English Readers—a capital idea, and one which we expect to see well carried out under the general editorship of Professors Cohn and Page, of Columbia University.

Saintly Calling (The). By James Mudge, D.D. Eaton & Mains, New York. 4½×7½ in. 260 pages. $1.

Shambles of Science (The): Extracts from the Diary of Two Students of Physiology. By L. Lind af Hagiby and L. K. Schartau. (Fourth and Revised Edition.) Published by the Authors, London. 4½×7 in. 216 pages.

Summit House Mystery (The). By L. Dougall. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York. 5×7¾ in. 345 pages. $1.50.

The plot of this novel is managed with much skill, holding one's interest without disclosing the solution of the puzzle until the very end. Two Northern ladies, while living apparently harmless and normal lives in the lonely mountain region of North Carolina, are the center of the mystery. Two gentlemen become involved, but the love motive is quite in abeyance. It is a cleverly told tale, with many original points, written by an English author who makes the unusual choice of an American background.

Syllabus of Continental European History: From the Fall of Rome to 1870. By Oliver Huntington Richardson, Ph.D., Guy Stanton Ford, Ph.D., and Edward Lewis Durfee, B.A. Ginn & Co., Boston. 7½×8¾ in. 84 pages. 75c.

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Story of Cupid and Psyche (The). By H. A. Guerber. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 4×6¼ in. 32 pages.

Threefold Path to Peace (The). By Xena. Dedicated to Fellow Disciples. The Grafton Press, New York. 3×7½ in. 60 pages.

Translations, Imitations, and a Few Originals. By Fabius M. Ray. Smith & Sale, Portland, Maine. 5×6¼ in. 86 pages.

Two Captains (The): A Romance of Bonaparte and Nelson. By Cyrus Townsend Brady. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 413 pages. $1.50.

A story of Nelson and Bonaparte in the troubled times of France's struggle to free herself from monarchy. The long, detailed accounts of sea fights and naval maneuvers will doubtless interest some readers, but the popular taste will find more gratification in the love story of the bold young Irish sea captain and the unhappy French countess whom he rescues from many perils and finally wins for his wife.

Wonders of Life (The): A Popular Study of Biological Philosophy. By Ernst Haeckel. Harper & Bros., New York. 5×7½ in. 485 pages. $1.50, net.

Professor Haeckel's opinions have been so often reviewed, and by The Outlook among others, that it may suffice to say of this volume that it is supplementary to his "Riddle of the Universe," and an answer to thousands of letters from inquirers. But it needs be said that he disclaims the crass materialism which attributes all the phenomena of life to the mechanical movements of atoms. As he must account for the existence of love and hatred, he refines the idea of matter so as to include what is usually regarded as immaterial, the ether that fills the interstices between the atoms of steel as well as the interstellar spaces, recognizes "sensation," or sensitiveness, as an attribute of matter, and regards it as alive throughout. His theory, known in philosophy as hylozoism, holds that life and matter are inseparable. So far as scientific research goes, this is true. Even in a crystal the primary sign of life appears in the incessant movement of its atoms. But which of the two is prior to the other—matter or life? This, the grand problem, is answered thus: "Plasm [the simplest organic substance] is living matter." "Life is a function of plasm," and is "self-developed" under "physical and chemical conditions." Reason might not demur to this theory of abiogenesis (the derivation of life from lifelessness), if only the rudimentary forms of life were in question. But for the higher forms of life in the world of thought it fails. The ideals of the seer, the sage, the saint, that transcend all experience, conceptions of things that eye has not seen nor ear heard, especially the thought of human finitude that yields the conception of the infinite, put to ridicule the notion that they are nothing but the product of physical and chemical forces in matter however sublimated. Notwithstanding his disclaimer of materialism, among materialists must Professor Haeckel still be classed. But it indicates small acquaintance with modern philosophy for him constantly to cite Kant as the standard-bearer of the opponents of his "monism." Kant was certainly a dualist, but his successor, Hegel, of whom Professor Haeckel has nothing to say, led the advance toward the idealistic monism of to-day. For Professor Haeckel to arrogate to his materialistic theory the exclusive right to the name of monism is either a singular illusion or a cool assumption.

Correspondence

Letters addressed to the Editors of The Outlook, to receive any attention whatever, must in all cases be accompanied by the name and address of the writer. Names will not be published if a request to that effect is made by the writer, but no attention, either personal or editorial, can be paid to anonymous communications.

The President and the Senate

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The matter in difference between the President and the Senate is of such importance that it ought not to be allowed to pass without at least some popular expression for one side or the other. It will clear the atmosphere to state the precise position.

For many years lovers of peace in all civilized nations have endeavored to substitute arbitration for war as a means of deciding controversies between nations. The United States has been the leader in this international movement. Our representatives at the Hague Convention took a prominent part in the deliberations there which resulted in the establishment for the first time of an international court of arbitration, and of rules for the conduct of proceedings before it. The Convention agreed to at the Hague Conference was embodied in a treaty which was ratified almost if not quite unanimously by the Senate of the United States. The first article of this Convention is as follows:

> For the purpose of preventing as much as possible recourse to force in the relations between States, the Signatory Powers agree to employ all their efforts to insure the peaceful adjustment of international differences.

The 16th article is as follows:

> In questions of a judicial character, and especially in questions of the interpretation or application of treaties, arbitration is acknowledged by the Signatory Powers as the most efficacious and at the same time the most just method of deciding controversies which have not been determined by diplomacy.

The United States is bound in good faith, and by treaty in full force, adopted in the manner required by the Constitution, faithfully to observe and keep these two articles.

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And for the purpose of giving them fuller effect, treaties have been negotiated between this country and several foreign countries by which the respective parties bind themselves again to submit to the Hague Tribunal questions arising between them which cannot be settled by diplomacy. There are certain reservations of questions vital to the life of the nation which really need not be considered here fully, because it is obvious that such questions never could or would be made the subject of arbitration. It is these latter treaties that the Senate is asked to ratify. The Senate has modified them so as to require fresh action by the Senate in case of every new arbitration. This amendment is defended on two grounds:

1. That, under the Constitution, the assent of the Senate is necessary to every arbitration.

5. That, even if this were not so, the President ought not to have the power to submit matters to arbitration without the consent of the Senate in each individual case.

In order to appreciate the position, it is necessary to consider just what the difference is. Under the Hague Convention, as was shown by the action of the Governments of Mexico and the United States in the Pious Fund arbitration, all that is necessary in order to obtain the judgment of the Hague Tribunal is that the Executive of each nation which is to submit a controversy to that Court should cause his Attorney-General to draw up a statement of the case on its behalf, with a distinction of the points which are to be decided by the Court. The statement by each counsel of the case for his nation would naturally differ from that of the other counsel, but both statements would agree in the specification of the points to be decided. When the statements are thus prepared, these are like the pleadings in a lawsuit between individuals. When the evidence is taken and the counsel on both sides heard, the Court decides the questions at issue. But it has no power to enforce its decision. Obedience to this is dependent upon the good faith of the parties submitting the question to its decision. If obedience involves the payment of money, it is necessary that the Legislature of the country which is required by the Tribunal to pay money should pass an act for its appropriation. This it is no doubt in good faith bound to do. But still the action of the Legislature is necessary in order to give effect to the decision.

The great advantage of this method of procedure is obvious. A question arises between two nations. Public feeling is excited. Each is convinced that it is in the right. The necessity for a decision may be urgent, and the state of public feeling may be such that it would be impossible to obtain the adoption of a new treaty for the arbitration of the particular matter in difference. In the case of the United States, the Senate might not be in session; and the so-called courtesy of the Senate, which has often been abused, to the great detriment of the Nation, would enable two Senators who wished to defeat the treaty to talk it to death. Two hotheads might easily plunge the Nation into war against the manifest wish of the whole people. These are the reasons why it is extremely important to have agreements for arbitration made while no questions are in difference, and when both sides can consider the method of decision with entire impartiality. If it had been necessary to negotiate a treaty between Great Britain and Russia before the North Sea case was submitted, there would probably have been war.

When these indisputable propositions are fairly considered, it must be obvious to the impartial that the Senatorial Constitutional objection has no force. It might as well be said that the consent of Congress is necessary to the bringing of every suit before the Supreme Court, as to say that the consent of the Senate is necessary to the bringing of every suit before the Hague Tribunal. In each case provision must be made by law for the trial of the suit. But it was never heard of until now that a provision of the Constitution requiring the consent of a legislative body required that consent in every individual case. On the contrary, statesmen have always advised that general laws should be passed providing for all such cases. That great statesman, Samuel J. Tilden, was the author of the amendment to the Constitution of the State of New York prohibiting many classes of special legislation, and requiring the adoption of general laws. The present treaty which the Senate has rejected is nothing more than a general law providing for the prosecution of international lawsuits before a competent court, and giving the consent of the Senate in advance to such prosecution.

The Constitution of the United States does not limit the treaty-making power, and the Supreme Court has often held that where the Constitution makes no limitation the Court will not make one by construction. To use the language of Chief Justice Marshall:[1]

> Powerful and ingenious minds, taking as postulates that the powers expressly granted to the government of the Union are to be contracted by construction into the narrowest possible compass, and that the original powers of the States are retained, if any possible construction will retain them, may, by a course of well-digested but refined and metaphysical reasoning founded on these premises, explain away the Constitution of our country, and leave it a magnificent structure, indeed, to look at, but totally unfit for use. They may so entangle and perplex the understanding as to obscure principles which were before thought quite plain, and induce doubts where, if the mind were to pursue its own course, none would be perceived. In such a case it is peculiarly necessary to recur to safe and fundamental principles, to sustain those principles, and, when sustained, to make them the tests of the arguments to be examined.

When we recur to these principles that have been briefly stated in this article, it will be seen that the President is entirely right in his present contention. It certainly

[1] Gibbons vs. Ogden, 9 Wheaton 1.

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is amazing, in view of the extraordinary verdict of the people at the last election in support of his foreign policy, that, before he is inaugurated, the Senate of the United States should refuse by an almost unanimous vote to assist him in carrying it out. There must be something wrong with the present Senate. What that is it behooves the people to consider well.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

[An editorial on the Arbitration Question will be found on another page.—THE EDITORS.]

The Reactionary Senate

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I cannot forbear writing you my hearty commendation of your comments on the United States Senate. The only criticism I would make would be that your language was too calm and dispassionate to express the feeling of large numbers of American citizens when they think of the United States Senate. Allow me to say, as one of many thousands of American workmen, that when we consider the personnel of our Senate as it is to-day, we are of the opinion that a true democratic and representative form of government scarcely exists in America to-day. The stupendous dignity of the Senate is built on a colossal self-conceit that makes that honorable body the laughing-stock of the civilized world, when with ponderous seriousness it weighs the welfare of millions of the race in the balance with some fancied danger to its rights and prerogatives. A mint and cummin Senate indeed! Where in the Constitution of the United States is there the slightest hint of a right given to the Senate to become in any way a hindrance and a stumbling-block in the pathway of the Nation, so long as that pathway be one of peace and righteous dealing among the nations of the earth? When measures, therefore, as perfectly adapted as human wisdom can make them to carry out peaceful and righteous ends are accepted by almost universal consent of the civilized nations of the world, where within our Constitution does our Senate get its right to block the wheels of progress, possibly destroy the concert of nations, stay the redemption of the race, and set the world of man back a hundred years? Where does it get any right to do any other thing than to ratify those arbitration treaties? The undoubted intent of the framers of our Constitution was to allow the Senate the power to frustrate unwise or hasty action on the part of the Chief Executive, but never to stand in the way of the progress of this Nation with other nations upward and onward to a higher plane of international relationship.

Concord, New Hampshire. A. H. K.

[We agree with you that the object of the Constitution was simply to guard against hasty and unconsidered action by the Chief Executive, and that the Senate is using its legal powers in the interest of its own supposed dignity, not in the interest of international welfare. The remedy is not quite so clear. It may be in following the plan adopted in Wisconsin, namely, the nomination of Senators by the two parties at the time when a State legislature is elected. This would not be legally binding, but it might come to have the same moral binding force that the choice of a President does on the Presidential electors. At present the Senate is too far removed from the people, and in some way needs to be made a representative of public welfare and not of special interests. —THE EDITORS.]

Japan's Christian College

To the Editors of The Outlook:

Knowing the interest which your readers are taking in the articles relative to Japan, I venture to address this letter in the thought that some may be interested also in an endeavor on behalf of Doshisha, Japan's Christian college.

When death was the penalty for leaving Japan, a young man of twenty-one dared the peril, and worked his way to Boston as a cabin-boy. He was received by the owner of the vessel, the Hon. Alpheus Hardy, and educated in New England, being graduated from Amherst College in 1870. He was with the first Embassy at Washington, and attended it through Europe as an interpreter. In 1874 he returned to Japan to found a college on the lines of his Alma Mater. In this endeavor he was supported by the American Board Mission. The history of his life is one of wonderful struggle and wonderful success. He founded and built up his college until its students numbered over seven hundred. He died in 1890. But the school lives, having as its object, fitly expressed in words written the morning before his death, "the advancement of Christianity, literature, and science, and the furtherance of all education . . . that through these, men of great and living power may be trained up for the service of true freedom and their country."

Doshisha College, founded by Joseph H. Neesima, has been a mighty influence for the past thirty years, during which Japan has made such marvelous progress. The school is national in character, drawing students from all provinces of the Empire, and sending forth men into all spheres of life. The list of graduates contains the names of about one thousand men who, with but few exceptions, have remained true to the high ideals of Christian service. Of these over 80 are preaching, 161 are teaching, 221 are in business, 156 are engaged in further study, 27 are officials, and 16 are editors. These men have had no small share in making Japan what she is proving herself to be.

The government of the school is vested in a Board of Directors; three representing the American Board Mission, three the Japanese donors, and others, not to exceed twenty, the Alumni of the school. The endowment is small. The plant is excellent; but the income of less than $100,000 is avail-

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able for current expenses. From the American Board at present the gifts are confined to an appropriation for the Theological Department, and the service of three teachers for the Academy and College. Beyond that the institution is self-supporting, doing with its faculty of over thirty men for between four and five hundred students what no American college attempts.

Individuals as well as the nation are feeling the present strain; and of necessity the gifts to the school from Japanese sources must be few and small for years to come. This is a time when the friends of Christian education, of true civilization in the Orient, can do a service of untold value.

Friends of Neesima and of Amherst College are presenting an appeal to the graduates of Amherst in behalf of the daughter school that, if possible, an endowment to be known as The Amherst College Neesima Endowment may be raised. Representatives of about forty classes have united in this endeavor. It is hoped that the interest may extend far beyond the circle of Amherst graduates; and that at this time many friends may be found for the cause of education in Japan. Each day is proving the power of education in the country. The salvation of Japan, in a deep and vital sense, lies now in making sure that the spirit of that education be and remain Christian. Japan is moved by her thinking men; and the whole East is being moved by Japan.

The sympathies of American civilization are for the most part with Japan in the present struggle. The best help that can be given is to help her assure the future, through the education of men who shall be men of power and of loyalty to high ideals. The pages of The Outlook are read by many who watch with deepest interest the making of history in the East. Nations grow in silence; and the crisis of war but reveals what has been made in the retirement of peace.

The Prudential Committee of the American Board will receive any endowment in trust and hold it for the use of the school; and the Directors are proving themselves in all ways able to handle funds wisely and well on the field.

Any one interested to know more fully of Doshisha, its work and present condition, may address the Officers of the American Board, in Boston, or the writer.

FRANK A. LOMBARD,
Dean of the College Faculty.

Doshisha, Kyoto, Japan.

School Gardens

The farmers scarcely look forward with more expectance to the coming of the first spring month than do certain city children whose farm land consists of a plot four feet and a half by six and a half in the garden of their school. Since Boston established the first school garden in America, over ten years ago, the movement has grown. Boston has now sixteen gardens, New York has appropriated $3,000 for the maintenance of the Children's Farm in the DeWitt Clinton Park, and Philadelphia last summer conducted its first two gardens provided by the Board of Public Instruction, one at Weccacoe Square, in a crowded foreign district, the other at Lansdowne Avenue. In each of these Philadelphia gardens over a hundred children worked every day from May to October, raising tomatoes, peas, beets, beans, lettuce, cabbage, almost all the summer vegetables, while classes from neighboring schools visited the gardens for lessons in nature study. Some of the little farmers were asked what they would have done during the summer had not the gardens been in existence. There were prompt replies of "Playin' ball and breakin' windows," "Readin'," "Bummin'." "Never has a summer been so peaceful," was the report of the residents. In New York last spring the pulling down of a "condemned" annex adjoining Public School No. 4, in the heart of the congested Jewish quarter, a spot which knows neither tree nor blade of grass, left a strip of vacant land which the principal promptly utilized as a school garden. Loam was brought and scattered on the ground, seeds were obtained from the Bureau of Agriculture, the Department of Streets provided fertilizer, and each class was allotted a share of the ground, there not being enough for every child to have an individual plot. Difficulties beset the would-be gardeners. When the classes came out to spade and plant, showers of missiles fell on them from adjoining tenement-house windows, and rows of big boys sat on the fence and swore. But when the first green peered above the ground, the children's interest knew no bounds, and they would hang around on holidays to watch the shoots grow. One class devoted their section exclusively to grass. *They had never seen grass growing before.* There came a proud day when the forty-eight boys in one class had each a pansy he himself had tended from seed to blossom; another plot supplied each of its gardeners with a radish; while the result of this actual contact with nature and nature's workings, slight as it might seem, was visible in every department of the school work. There may be those who doubt that when the Lord made man he placed him in a garden; but if any doubt that a garden is at once a school and playground in which children ought to be placed, they should visit the nearest school garden and see for themselves. *

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THE OUTLOOK WANT DEPARTMENT

is of great assistance to Outlook readers seeking *Positions* or *Business Opportunities*, or looking for *Help* in all the better grades. An advertisement in The Outlook Want Department is almost certain to bring results. *The rate for notices in this Department is* Five Cents *for each word or initial, address included. Orders should be sent (with remittance) at least ten days prior to publication.*

TEACHERS, GOVERNESSES, COMPANIONS, DOMESTIC HELPERS

PARENTS may learn of exceptional teacher for backward, sensitive children. Mature, college woman, special experience. 667, Outlook.

SMALL private classes, New York City. Charge of experienced teacher, college woman. Special attention to retarded, sensitive children. 666, Outlook.

GENTLEWOMAN, middle-aged, offers her services for slight remuneration and home during winter, and as useful companion and nurse. 668, Outlook.

AN educated New England woman, ten years with old New York family as companion-housekeeper to an invalid, wishes position of trust with refined people, institution; would travel. 673, Outlook.

REFINED Protestant woman (30) would accept a responsible position in good family. Understands care of invalids and children; also housekeeping. References given and required. Watson, 673, Outlook.

AN undergraduate nurse—two years' training—desires position with elderly lady or semi-invalid who desires to travel. Compensation, twenty-five dollars per month. Best references. Address P. O. Box 17, Somerville, N. J.

WOMAN of refinement desires position as secretary. Best references. 639, Outlook.

AN educated young woman wishes to help to recovery as companion and nurse a lady suffering with melancholia or slight mental derangement. 640, Outlook.

WANTED—A position as housekeeper, companion, governess, or at telephoning, by an experienced teacher who desires change. Address Box 115, Brandon, Vt.

GENTLEWOMAN of middle age, experienced, desires responsible position in family or institution. 641, Outlook.

WANTED—German or French nursery governess for four children. Must have had experience. 711 Fairmont Ave., Fairmont, W. Va.

REFINED young lady desires opportunity to travel in Europe this summer as companion or secretary to lady. Salary no object. References exchanged. 632, Outlook.

WANTED by April 1st, position as nursery governess by educated Canadian woman. Experienced with children. Would take charge of motherless child. References. Address M. E., West Side Hospital, Scranton Pa.

MATRON—Position as matron or manager wanted by woman of experience. Has been nine years in present position but wishes to change to city or town where there is high school her daughter can attend. F. D. W., 633, Outlook.

REFINED young woman is offered a position as mother's helper, with family living one-half hour from New York. Two children; a good home with low wages and extra to one speaking French. References. Montclair, 635, Outlook.

YOUNG lady, speaks German, French, English, desires position as traveling companion to lady. Highest references. Address 912 Farragut Terrace, Philadelphia.

GRADUATE of Normal Art School, who has traveled abroad, desires position as resident teacher in girls' private school. References. 638, Outlook.

GENTLEWOMAN would give her services as companion to one going South during March for expenses and small remuneration. References given. 653, Outlook.

WANTED—As nurse and mother's helper, responsible woman desiring home. Suburb, 652, Outlook.

WANTED—By capable person of experience, position as managing housekeeper in a private family, school, or institution. References. 654, Outlook.

GRADUATE nurse desires position to take charge of delicate child, or nurse companion and housekeeper to invalid, either sex. Testimonials. Correspondence solicited. 661, Outlook.

HARVARD graduate, principal of New England Academy, will travel as tutor during July and August. Experienced in travel. 659, Outlook.

REFINED American, Protestant, wishes position as attending companion to elderly lady or invalid; nurse's training; also experienced housekeeper. 657, Outlook.

TEACHERS, GOVERNESSES, COMPANIONS, DOMESTIC HELPERS

WANTED—Woman for general housework, including washing. Family of three. Country, near New York. Good home, good wages. Apply early Tuesday afternoon, 67 Willow St. Brooklyn.

UNIVERSITY instructor, experienced traveler and linguist, wishes engagement as secretary or traveling companion. 663, Outlook.

SUCCESSFUL nurse wants nervous patient. References. 450, Outlook.

KINDERGARTEN position (any location) wanted for next year by well trained, experienced kindergartner. Eleanore Lowrey, Blue Earth, Minn.

TEACHERS wanted for fall vacancies. The best positions are filled early. Send to-day for information. Dixon Educational Bureau, 1420 Chestnut, Philadelphia.

FAMILIES and institutions in need of housekeepers, matrons, mother's helpers, companions, etc., address Miss Richards, 48 Lloyd Ave., Providence, R. I.

TUTORS—governesses—teachers. American, foreign, musical. Schools recommended. Communicate promptly. Schermerhorn Teachers' Agency, 3 East Fourteenth St., New York City. Established 1855.

STENOGRAPHERS, MANUENSES, LIBRARIANS, ETC.

WANTED—Assistant Librarian, college graduate, between 24 and 36. Must have presence and address, energy and executive ability. Library experience desirable, but not essential if candidate possesses high personal and educational qualifications. Address F. M. Crunden, Public Library, St. Louis, Mo.

SMITH College graduate desires position as secretary. Knowledge of German and French, typewriting, stenography. 656, Outlook.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

WANTED—A competent manager for summer hotel in the mountains. Salary and commission. Brooklyn or Harlem connection desirable. 672, Outlook.

WANTED—Property to rent suitable for boys' boarding school, in or near Orange, N. J. Accommodate 20 to 30. 650, Outlook.

EDUCATOR wanted to take the Presidency of a proposed Teachers and Mechanical Engineering College in northern Ohio. Applicant must be able to influence some capital. Eastern man preferred. 644, Outlook.

I can place money to great advantage in income-producing Brooklyn property in amounts of $500 or more. Will demonstrate this to interested investors. Write or call on J. D. Plumb, 140 Nassau St., N. Y.

TEACHERS wanted to act as agents. Cash salary. Louisiana Teachers' Agency, Covington, La.

MANUFACTURING business wanted. Would invest moderate amount in good going proposition. Middle States. 605, Outlook.

YOUR son—Want to put him into business? Fine opportunity. Business established sixteen years. $10,000. Dibble, 253 Broadway, New York.

BUSINESS SITUATIONS

TRAVELING companion.—Cultured young man, college graduate, speaking eight languages and having traveled extensively, offers his services as companion and private secretary. Please address Loth, 50 West 96th St., New York.

WANTED—Active men of character, education, and business ability to act as representative. Weekly salary or guarantee paid. Give age, qualifications, references. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York.

A youngish man desired for assistant general manager of a well-established, prosperous business; investment $5,000 in preferred stock, dividend paying. Proper salary. Solid assets, $100,000. 665, Outlook.

ASSISTANT manager of large corporation, who is familiar with modern methods in manufacturing and mercantile lines, desires to make a change. 660, Outlook.

WE have executive, clerical, technical, and salesman positions paying from $1,000 to $10,000 a year which must be filled at once. If you want to better your position, write for booklet. Offices in 12 cities. Hapgoods, Brain Brokers, Suite 511, 309 Broadway, New York.

BUSINESS SITUATIONS

UNIVERSITY graduate, experienced traveler, linguist, would travel in Europe as secretary or tutor. 670, Outlook.

HIGH-GRADE positions now open for competent men. Manager, $2,000; superintendent, $2,500; secretary, $1,200. Others on file. Write for particulars. Business Opportunity Company, 1 Union Square, N. Y.

BOARD AND ROOMS

REFINED family offers pleasant home to invalids. Testimonials. Correspondence invited. 647, Outlook.

COMFORTABLE home for those requiring rest and care. Mrs. Buscall, Springfield, Mass.

MISCELLANEOUS

AN expert shopper offers her services to you without charge. Tell me your needs by letter. No charge. Send for circular. Ella Harding, 96 Fifth Ave., N. Y.

CULTURED woman (artist) desires opportunity to study beautiful scenery on travel and at the same time earn expenses. 675, Outlook.

ELECTRO-MASSAGE—Facial and scalp treatment given at ladies' residences. Long experience. Physicians' testimonials. 674, Outlook.

WANTED—An earnest, intelligent, and educated Christian young man to assist pastor of Congregational Church in the Middle West. References required. 674, Outlook.

SCHOOL Principal will take small, select party of boys to Europe for travel during summer vacation. 651, Outlook.

RETIRED Superintendent, with superior testimonials as teacher, will receive and educate a child in country home. 646, Outlook.

PRONUNCIATION made easy! Game fifty cents. Charles Harris, Oxford, Mass.

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ELDERLY persons or invalids will receive careful and considerate attention in home of experienced nurse. Delightful surroundings. Massage and sunbaths. Physician's references. Box 1,087, Middletown, Conn.

BOYS' outing.—Experienced tutor will take four boys on fishing trip during summer. Particulars on application. Best references. Tutoring if desired. 636, Outlook.

COUNTRY Place.—Information wanted of an attractive country place which is for sale and located within a night's ride of New York City. Principals only. 999, Outlook.

PUBLISHERS' illuminating work copied, with view to original designs, by experienced artist. 622, Outlook.

CARD Catalogue case for sale. Case is made of oak by the Library Bureau of Boston and is 15 inches high, 20 inches deep, and 3 feet 4 inches wide. Contains 12 drawers for cards 2x5 inches. Is in good condition and will be sold for $7.50 cash. 01, Outlook.

EMBROIDERERS wanted on infants' cashmere sacques and wrappers. Knitters on sacques and bootees. Home work to experienced hands only, who can do fine work and furnish commenced or complete samples showing the work they can do. References required, no deposit. Call on or address R. R. Barringer, 16 E. 13th St., New York.

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"MRS. BAGG'S Bargain Day," "Mrs. Tubbs's Telegram," 25c. each. Royalty plays. Highest endorsements from women's clubs, schools, church organizations, etc. K. McDowell Rice, Worthington, Mass.

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SEASHORE Property.—Anyone having seashore property for sale kindly address 02, Outlook.

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